



This is a digital copy of a book that was preserved for generations on library shelves before it was carefully scanned by Google as part of a project to make the world's books discoverable online.

It has survived long enough for the copyright to expire and the book to enter the public domain. A public domain book is one that was never subject to copyright or whose legal copyright term has expired. Whether a book is in the public domain may vary country to country. Public domain books are our gateways to the past, representing a wealth of history, culture and knowledge that's often difficult to discover.

Marks, notations and other marginalia present in the original volume will appear in this file - a reminder of this book's long journey from the publisher to a library and finally to you.

Usage guidelines

Google is proud to partner with libraries to digitize public domain materials and make them widely accessible. Public domain books belong to the public and we are merely their custodians. Nevertheless, this work is expensive, so in order to keep providing this resource, we have taken steps to prevent abuse by commercial parties, including placing technical restrictions on automated querying.

We also ask that you:

- + *Make non-commercial use of the files* We designed Google Book Search for use by individuals, and we request that you use these files for personal, non-commercial purposes.
- + *Refrain from automated querying* Do not send automated queries of any sort to Google's system: If you are conducting research on machine translation, optical character recognition or other areas where access to a large amount of text is helpful, please contact us. We encourage the use of public domain materials for these purposes and may be able to help.
- + *Maintain attribution* The Google "watermark" you see on each file is essential for informing people about this project and helping them find additional materials through Google Book Search. Please do not remove it.
- + *Keep it legal* Whatever your use, remember that you are responsible for ensuring that what you are doing is legal. Do not assume that just because we believe a book is in the public domain for users in the United States, that the work is also in the public domain for users in other countries. Whether a book is still in copyright varies from country to country, and we can't offer guidance on whether any specific use of any specific book is allowed. Please do not assume that a book's appearance in Google Book Search means it can be used in any manner anywhere in the world. Copyright infringement liability can be quite severe.

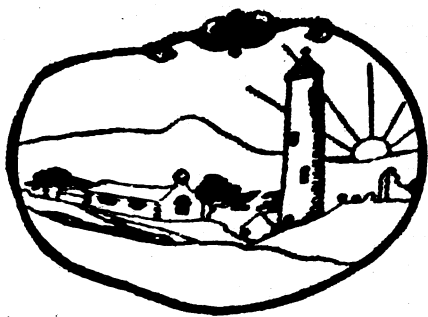
About Google Book Search

Google's mission is to organize the world's information and to make it universally accessible and useful. Google Book Search helps readers discover the world's books while helping authors and publishers reach new audiences. You can search through the full text of this book on the web at <http://books.google.com/>

CS
Joyce



OUTLINES OF HISTORY OF IRELAND



JOYCE

1. ^vIreland - Hist.

261, 9011

OUTLINES OF THE HISTORY OF IRELAND FROM THE EARLIEST TIMES TO 1922

BY

P. W. JOYCE, LL.D., M.R.I.A.

*One of the Commissioners for the Publication of the Ancient
Laws of Ireland*

AUTHOR OF

"A SOCIAL HISTORY OF ANCIENT IRELAND"
"A SHORT HISTORY OF IRELAND"
"A CHILD'S HISTORY OF IRELAND" "IRISH NAMES OF PLACES"
"OLD CELTIC ROMANCES" "ANCIENT IRISH MUSIC"
"A READING BOOK IN IRISH HISTORY"
AND OTHER WORKS RELATING TO IRELAND

THE EDUCATIONAL COMPANY OF
IRELAND LTD., 89 TALBOT ST., DUBLIN
LONGMANS, GREEN, AND CO.
39 PATERNOSTER ROW :: LONDON

C18943

V/L

THE NEW YORK
PUBLIC LIBRARY

75238B

ASTOR LENOX AND
TILDEN FOUNDATIONS

R 1910 L

PREFACE

THIS little book is intended mainly for use in Schools; and it is accordingly written in very simple language. But I have some hope that those of the general public who wish to know something of the subject, but are not prepared to go into details, may also find it useful. As it is meant for reading, not cramming, I have put it in the form of a consecutive narrative, avoiding statistics and scrappy disconnected statements. My aim has been to make it readable and interesting, so far as its extreme brevity admitted; and to give the reader, whether child or adult, a clear view, in small space, of the leading features of Irish History. The book is an abridgment of my "Child's History of Ireland"; and the tone and treatment all through will be found I hope fair and moderate.

P. W. J.

DUBLIN, 1894.

CONTENTS

PART I.

INSTITUTIONS AND CUSTOMS

Chapter	Page
I. Books and Book-lore	8
II. The Brehon Law	10
III. Music and Art	13
IV. Buildings	15
V. Various Customs	16

PART II.

IRELAND UNDER NATIVE RULERS

I. Pagan Ireland	19
II. Early Christian Ireland to the time of the Danes	23
III. Saint Patrick	26
IV. Religion and Learning in Early Christian Ireland	29
V. The Danes	31
VI. Brian Boru : The Battle of Clontarf	32
VII. The Eve of the Invasion	37

PART III.

THE PERIOD OF THE INVASION

I. The First Anglo-Norman Adven- turers	41
II. A Century of Turmoil	47
III. The Statute of Kilkenny	49
IV. The Two Expeditions of Richard II.	52
V. Poynings' Law	54
VI. The Geraldines	55
VII. General Submission	60

PART IV.

THE PERIOD OF INSURRECTION, CONFISCATION,
AND PLANTATION

Chapter	Page
I. New Causes of Strife	63
II. The Rebellion of Shane O'Neill	65
III. The Geraldine Rebellion	66
IV. The Plantations	69
V. The Rebellion of Hugh O'Neill	71
VI. The end of the O'Neill Rebellion and the Flight of the Earls	75
VII. The Plantation of Ulster	79
VIII. The "Graces"	82
IX. The Rebellion of 1641	84
X. The Confederation of Kilkenny	87
XI. Cromwell	92
XII. The Reign of Charles II.	94
XIII. The War of the Revolution	96

PART V.

THE PERIOD OF THE PENAL LAWS

I. The Penal Laws and the Laws made to destroy Irish Trade	103
II. Complete Subjection of the Irish Parliament	107
III. Struggles for Legislative Independence	108
IV. The Volunteers	113
V. Legislative Independence	115
VI. Continuance of Discontent	117
VII. The Rebellion of 1798	122
VIII. The Union	128
IX. Catholic Emancipation	130

PART VI.

THE MODERN PERIOD
(SUPPLEMENTAL)

Chapter	Page
I. To the Death of O'Connell. . .	134
II. Disturbances and Remedies .	138
III. The Park Murders ...	142
IV. Agitation and Unrest, the <i>Plan</i> of Campaign ...	147
V. The Death of Parnell ...	150
VI. Industrial Progress ...	155
VII. The Irish Free State ...	168

OUTLINES

OF THE

HISTORY OF IRELAND

THE HISTORY OF IRELAND falls naturally under six main Headings :

- I.—INSTITUTIONS AND CUSTOMS.
- II.—IRELAND UNDER NATIVE RULERS.
- III.—THE PERIOD OF INVASION.
- IV.—THE PERIOD OF INSURRECTION, CONFISCATION, AND PLANTATION.
- V.—THE PERIOD OF THE PENAL LAWS.
- VI.—THE MODERN PERIOD.

These six Divisions will be treated of in six separate Parts of this book, each Part subdivided into a number of short Chapters. For convenience of reference the paragraphs are numbered consecutively from the beginning to the end of the book.

PART I.

INSTITUTIONS AND CUSTOMS.

THE following five chapters, forming the first Part of this Book, have been written with the object of giving, in simple popular form, some trustworthy information on the Literature, Laws, and Customs of the Ancient Irish people.

CHAPTER I.

BOOKS AND BOOK-LORE.

1. *Growth of Libraries.*—In times of old some of the learned men of Ireland devoted themselves almost entirely to the good work of copying books; and manuscripts accumulated in course of time, which were kept in colleges and in many private houses. But during the troubles spoken of farther on, these collections were scattered, and most of the books were lost or destroyed. Many, however, were saved from the wreck, and are preserved to this day in Dublin and elsewhere.

2. *The Book of Leinster*.—The largest of all these old manuscript books that remain to us is the Book of Leinster, which is kept in Trinity College, Dublin. It is an immense volume, all in the Irish language, written nearly 800 years ago; and many of its pages, like those of most of the other old books, are now almost black with age, and very hard to make out. It contains about a thousand pieces of various kinds, some in prose and some in verse, nearly all of them about Ireland: histories, accounts of battles and sieges, lives and adventures of great Irishmen, with many romantic tales about things that happened in this country in far distant ages.

3. *Other Existing MSS.*—The *Book of the Dun Cow* is still older than the Book of Leinster; and we have also the *Book of Ballymote* and the *Book of Lecan* [Leckan], both less old; all of which contain pieces of much the same kind as those in the Book of Leinster. The *Speckled Book*, which is almost as large as the Book of Leinster, but not nearly so old, is mostly on religious matters, and contains a great number of Lives of saints, hymns, sermons, and portions of the Scriptures. All these old books are preserved in Dublin.

I have named only a few of the most

important. There are great numbers in Dublin besides these; and there are many also in the library of Oxford, and in the British Museum, London.

Irish books are also found in the libraries of the Continent, written or brought from Ireland by Irish scholars and missionaries of the eighth, ninth, and tenth centuries.

CHAPTER II.

THE BREHON LAW.

4. *Its Leading Feature.*—The ancient law of Ireland is known as the “ Brehon Law ”; and the judges who decided cases were called *Brehons*. These brehons wrote down their laws in books, many of which we still possess, and some have been published with translations.

The Brehon law did not lay down capital punishment, even for murder; all offences were atoned for by a *compensation payment* given by the offender to the person or family injured. If the offender did not pay, his family had to pay. The fine for murder, or for any injury to the person, was called *eric* [errick]: The brehon fixed the amount of compensation in each case.

5. *Grades and Groups of Society*.—The people were formed into groups of various sizes. The *Family* consisted of the living parents and their descendants. The *Clan* or *Sept* was formed of several families; the *Tribe* of several septs. Septs and tribes were governed by chiefs: the chief of a tribe had authority over the chiefs of the several clans or septs composing the tribe.

If the territory occupied by a tribe was very large the chief was a *Ri* [ree] or king. These tribe-kings were subject to the kings of their several provinces—for each province had a king; and the provincial kings again were subject to the *ard-ri* or king of all Ireland, who lived at *Tara*, in Meath.

6. *Provinces*.—There were anciently five provinces (27); Leinster, Ulster, Connaught, and the two Munsters (East and West, meeting at Cork). This division became modified as time went on. The two Munsters came to be regarded as one province; and in the second century A.D. the new province of Meath was formed (31). A later and better known subdivision of Munster was into North Munster or *Thomond* (roughly Tipperary, Clare, and Limerick) and South Munster or *Desmond* (Cork, Kerry, and Waterford). In later times Meath disappeared as a province; and the original

provincial division, with some changes, still remains.

7. *Election of King or Chief*.—It was usual to choose the successor during the lifetime of the king or chief himself: this person was then the *Tanist*. The tanist, chief, or king, was always taken from the members of one ruling family of the tribe or sept; and that member was chosen who was considered best able to govern and lead in peace and war.

8. *Tenure of land*.—Some small portion of the land occupied by the tribe belonged to individuals as *private property*; and the chief had a tract during life as *Mensal land* for his own support. But by far the largest portion of the arable land was *Tribe-land* or common property; that is, it belonged to the people in general, no part being private property. Each sept of the tribe occupied a particular district, which was not interfered with by any other sept. Each head of a family had a farm for the time being; but when any of these farmers died, his portion did not go to his children; but all the *Tribe-land* occupied by the sept was re-divided among all the male adult members of that sept, including the dead man's adult sons. This custom was what was called *Gavelkind*.

When a chief died his mensal land did not go to his family, but to his successor in the chiefship. This custom was called *Tanistry*.

The waste land—mountain, bog, forest, etc.—was called *Commons land*; and every member of the sept or tribe had a right to the use of it for grazing and other purposes.

9. *Revenue of Chief*.—Besides the income derived by the chief from his mensal land, the tribesmen had to pay him contributions of various kinds, never in money—for there was hardly any money then—but always in kind—cattle, corn, pigs, butter, wine, etc.

CHAPTER III.

MUSIC AND ART.

10. *Musical Instruments*. — The ancient Irish were celebrated for their skill in music; so much so that Irish teachers were often engaged to give musical instruction in the colleges and schools of Great Britain and the Continent. Their chief instruments were the *harp* and the *bagpipe*.

Many of the higher classes played on the harp as an accomplishment; and there were professional harpers who excelled those of

all other countries. The bagpipe was the instrument of the lower classes, and was very much used in marching to battle.

11. *Musical Compositions.* — We still possess great numbers of the lovely airs composed by those great old musicians; and many songs have been written to them, the best of which are those by Thomas Moore.

12. *Penwork.*—In early times there was no printing, and all books had to be written by hand. The Irish were very skilful in ornamental penmanship. They usually made the capital letters very large, and embellished them with beautiful and delicate interlaced designs. They also painted them in brilliant colours, which art was called *Illumination*.

Many of these old books are still preserved, of which the most remarkable is the *Book of Kells*, now in Trinity College, Dublin. It is a copy of the Four Gospels in Latin, and is the most beautifully written book in the world.

13. *Metal Work.*—The Irish also excelled in metal work, which they embellished with the same sort of ornamentation as they used in writing. Many specimens of their exquisite workmanship may be seen in the National Museum in Dublin, of which the most beautiful are the Cross of Cong, the Ardagh Chalice, and the Tara Brooch.

CHAPTER IV.

BUILDINGS.

14. *Dwellings and Fortresses.*—Before the introduction of Christianity, almost all buildings in Ireland were *round-shaped*. The dwelling houses were generally made of wood; and the people protected them from robbers and wild animals by digging a deep circular trench all round, and throwing up the clay on the inside so as to form a high fence or dyke. One opening was left for a gate or door.

The remains of these circular fortifications are still found all over the country; they are called by various names, such as *lis*, *rath*, *dun*, *cashel*, *fort*, etc. But the wooden houses that stood on the circular space inside are all gone.

15. *Churches and Monasteries.* — The churches, which began to be built after the arrival of St. Patrick, were generally of wood, but often of stone. For many centuries they continued to be built very small: but in the twelfth century large and splendid churches began to be erected. The ruins of great numbers of the simple little stone churches of the early centuries, and of the

grand churches and monasteries of the twelfth and subsequent centuries, are still to be seen all over the country.

16. *Round Towers*.—In connexion with many churches and monasteries there were slender round towers of stone, from 60 to 150 feet high, divided into stories. These were erected at various times from the ninth to the thirteenth century. They had at least a twofold use—as belfries, and as keeps or fortresses to which the inmates of the monastery could retire with their valuables in case of sudden attack. They were probably also used as beacons and watch towers. About 80 of the towers still remain, of which about 20 are perfect.

CHAPTER V.

VARIOUS CUSTOMS.

17. *War Customs*.—The ancient Irish had two kinds of foot soldiers—*Galloglasses*, who wore a coat of mail and an iron helmet, and were armed with long sword and a keen edged battle-axe; and *Kern*, who were lightly armed, and fought with a *skean* or short sword, and a javelin tied at the end of a long thong. But the Irish never took well

to armour, preferring to fight in their saffron-coloured tunics; which was a great disadvantage to them in battle. Cavalry was not much used.

18. *Roads and Chariots*.—There were five great highways leading from Tara in five different directions; and everywhere the country was well provided with roads. Chariots were used both in private life and in war; the battle chariots were furnished with spikes and scythe-blades.

19 *Boats*.—The Irish used three kinds of boats—small sailing vessels; canoes hollowed out from the trunks of trees; and *currachs*—i.e., wicker boats covered with hides.

20. *Mills*.—Small water-mills were very common; and in most houses there was a *quern* or hand mill, which was usually worked by women.

21. *Burial*.—The ancient Irish buried their dead in *three* ways. FIRST WAY: the body was buried as at present; SECOND, sometimes the body of a king or great warrior was placed standing up in the grave, fully dressed and armed; THIRD, the body was burned, and the ashes were deposited in the earth in an ornamental urn of baked clay.

Sometimes the body or urn was placed
(D778) B

in what we now call a *Cromlech*, formed of several large upright stones, supporting on the top one immense flat stone. Many of these cromlechs still remain: the people commonly call them giants' graves.

Sometimes a *Cairn* or great mound of stones was heaped up over the grave. In old times people had a fancy to bury on the tops of hills, so that cairns are still to be seen on many hill-tops. On the level lowlands the burial mound was often formed of clay: many of these mounds also remain to this day. Both cairn and mound had a chamber formed of flags in the centre, in which the body or urn was placed.

22. *Public Assemblies*.—It was customary to hold public assemblies or *fairs* in various places to discuss divers affairs affecting the public weal, and to carry on games, athletic exercises, and traffic. The most celebrated of all was the *Fes* or Convention of Tara, where the kings, chiefs, and learned men of all Ireland met every third year. The meeting lasted for seven days—three days before and three days after *Samin*, or the first of November: and all the time the numerous delegates with their crowds of attendants were entertained and feasted by the king of Ireland.

PART II.

IRELAND UNDER NATIVE RULERS.

(FROM THE EARLIEST TIMES TO 1172.)

THIS period, which began in times beyond the reach of History, ended about 1172; after which there was no longer a native king over Ireland.

CHAPTER I.

PAGAN IRELAND.

23. *Legend and Fact.*—In the first part of this chapter the narrative is legendary like the early accounts of all other nations. As we approach the beginning of the Christian era we begin to have a mixture of real history; and fact goes on increasing, till at the time of St. Patrick and afterwards, Irish history may generally be accepted as truth.

24. *The five legendary Colonies.* — We have legendary accounts of the arrival of five ancient colonies to Ireland.

25. *The Partholonians*: the first colony. These were led hither from Greece by their chief, Parthalon, 300 years after the Deluge. At the end of another 300 years they were all carried off by a plague.

26. *The Nemedians*, the second colony, were brought by Nemed: but after some years he and 3000 of his people died of the plague. The Nemedians were harassed by sea-robbers called *Fomorians*, who had their strongest fortress on Tory Island off Donegal.

27. *The Firbolgs*, the third colony, came from Greece. The five brothers who led them divided Ireland into five provinces, Ulster, Leinster, Connaught and the two Munsters (6).

28 *The Dedannans*: the fourth colony. These also came from Greece. They were great magicians: and after conquering the Firbolgs in battle they took possession of Ireland.

29 *The Milesians*: the fifth and greatest colony. After wandering over Europe for many generations, they came to Ireland from Spain under the command of the eight sons of the hero Milèd or Milesius. But the Dedannans, by their spells, raised a furious tempest which wrecked the fleet, and five of the brothers perished.

The remaining three landed, and having defeated the Dedannans, became masters of the country. One of the brothers, Eber Finn, took the two Munsters for his kingdom; and Eremon took Leinster and Connaught. They made the third brother, Amergin, chief poet and brehon of the kingdom; and they gave Ulster to their nephew Eber.

30. *Eremon*.—After the lapse of one year Eremon slew his brother Eber Finn in battle and became sole king. Thenceforward Ireland continued to be governed by Milesian kings till the destruction of the monarchy in A.D. 1172.

31. *Tuathal the Legitimate*.—In the beginning of the second century of the Christian era, king Tuathal [Toohal] the Legitimate formed the province of Meath to be the special estate or Mensal land (8) of the kings of Ireland. And he laid on Leinster an enormous tribute called the *Boruma* or *Boru*, to be paid to the kings of Ireland every second year. This tax was always resisted, and was for centuries the cause of much bloodshed.

32. *Conn the Hundred Fighter*, king of Ireland in the second century, was forced by Mogh-Nuadhat [Mow-Nooat] king of Munster to divide Ireland with him: the northern half was called *Leth-Conn*, Conn's

half: the southern half *Leth-Mow* or Mow's half.

33. *Cormac Mac Art* grandson of Conn the Hundred-fighter began to reign A.D. 254. He is said to have founded three colleges at Tara, and after a prosperous reign he retired to a cottage, called Cletta, on the Boyne, where he composed some books on law. He was the wisest and best of all the pagan kings of Ireland.

34. *Niall of the Nine Hostages* (A.D. 379 to 405) was a great warrior. He invaded the coasts of Britain and Gaul, conveying his armies over sea in fleets of currachs (19). In one of his plundering excursions he brought St. Patrick, then a boy, a captive to Ireland (45). From Niall were descended the *Hy Neill*, subsequently called O'Neills (chiefs of Tyrone) from whom nearly all the supreme kings of Ireland were chosen. While marching with his army along the river Loire in Gaul, he was assassinated by the king of Leinster.

35. *Dathi* [Dauhy], Niall's successor (A.D. 405), was the last king of pagan Ireland. In one of his predatory excursions he was killed by a flash of lightning at the foot of the Alps.

36 *Laeghaire* [Leary], son of Niall, came next (A.D. 428). During his reign St.

Patrick came to Ireland on his mission. Laeghaire waged war on the Leinstermen to exact the Poru tribute: but they defeated him and took him prisoner. They let him go however after he had sworn the old pagan oath, *by the sun and wind and all the elements*, that he would never ask for it any

more. The very next year he

A.D. 463 marched from Tara to enforce the tribute, but died suddenly on the way. The legend says he was killed "by the sun and wind" for breaking his oath.

CHAPTER II.

EARLY CHRISTIAN IRELAND TO THE TIME OF THE DANES.

37. *Battle of Ocha*.—On the death of Laeghaire, the throne was

A.D. 463 seized by Olioll Molt king of Connaught son of king Dathi.

But Laeghaire's son Lewy, when he came of age, defeated and slew Olioll in the great battle of Ocha in Meath, and

A.D. 483 was at once proclaimed King.

Lewy was grandson of Niall of the Nine Hostages; and from that time forth, for 500 years without a break, the Hy Neill (34) held the throne of Ireland.

38. *Colonies to Scotland*.—From the earliest ages the Irish of Ulster were in the habit of crossing the narrow sea to Alban or Scotland, where colonies were settled from time to time. During the reign of Lewy, the greatest of all these colonies was led by

three brothers—Fergus, Angus,
A.D. 503 and Lorne. Fergus became
king of the settlement, which
soon mastered the whole country; and from
him were descended the kings of Scotland.

The Irish were at that time, and for long after, called *Scots*: and this colony gave the name of Scotland to North Britain, which had previously been called Alban.

39. *Tara Abandoned*.—The third king after Lewy was Dermot son of

A.D. 544 Fergus. In his reign Tara,
where the supreme kings had
lived from time beyond mind, was abandoned as a royal residence, and gradually fell into decay.

40. *Convention of Drumketta*.—By king Aed or Hugh Mac Ainmirè was summoned the assembly of Drum-Cete

A.D. 574 [Drum-Ketta] near Limavady.
This was like the Fes of Tara (22), and was attended by the chief men of Ireland, both lay and clerical, by the chiefs of the Scottish colony, and by St.

Columkille, who came over from Iona (53). At this meeting it was agreed that the Scottish colony should be no longer subject to the Irish kings, but should be independent. Strict rules were laid down to regulate the numbers and conduct of the *Irish Bards*, who had become very numerous and troublesome.

41. *Battle of Dunbolg*.—King Aed, attempting to exact the Boru-mean tribute, was defeated and slain in the battle of Dunbolg near Dunlavin, in the present county Wicklow, by Branduff king of Leinster.

42. *Battle of Moyrath*.—During the reign of Donall son of Aed Mac Ainmirè, Congal Claen prince of Ulster brought a great army of Britons, Saxons, Picts, and Scots, to invade Ireland and win the throne for himself. But Donall defeated and slew him, and almost annihilated his army, in a battle lasting six successive days at A.D. 637 Moyrath, now Moira, in the county Down.

43. *Remission of the Boru Tribute*.—At the intercession of St. Moling of Ferns, king Finaghta the Festive, who began his reign in 674, remitted the Boru tribute. Yet this did not end the matter. After the lapse of two reigns the monarch Fergal, in attempt-

ing to enforce it, was defeated (A.D. 722) by the Leinstermen, at the Hill of Allen in Kildare, where the king and 7000 of his men were slain. But when Aed Allen, son of Fergal, became king, he engaged the Leinster army at Ballyshannon in Kildare (in 738) and nearly annihilated them. After this it gradually fell into disuse.

CHAPTER III.

SAINT PATRICK.

44. *Religion of Pagan Ireland.*—It is commonly believed that the religion of the pagan Irish was *druidism*: but in regard to the nature of this Irish druidism we are very much in the dark. The *druids* were a sort of priests, and were almost the only people that had any learning. They were believed to be magicians and diviners, so that the people stood in great awe of them.

The Irish had many gods and goddesses. They also worshipped fairies, who were believed to live in splendid palaces, each palace under a green mound called a *shee* or fairy hill. Many of these fairy hills are still known to us. Even after the people had become Christians they still believed in

fairies. This superstition has not yet quite died out; and many persons still fancy that fairies inhabit the old *raths*, *lisses*, *forts*, and *shees* that are scattered over the country.

Some worshipped idols. There was a great idol—the chief idol of Ireland—called *Crom Cruach*, standing somewhere in the present county Cavan, covered over with gold, surrounded by twelve smaller idols all of which were destroyed by St. Patrick. But idol worship was not very general.

45. *Patrick's Early Life*.—Let us now go back again to the time of king Laeghaire in order to trace the origin and progress of Christianity in Ireland.

We do not know for certain St. Patrick's birthplace: but it is probable he was born in Scotland: though some say Gaul. His father was a magistrate in a Roman colony.

Having been taken captive by Niall of the Nine Hostages (34), and having spent six years as a slave herding cattle on Slemish mountain in Antrim, he escaped and made his way back to his family. His whole desire thenceforward was to attempt the conversion of the Irish people.

46. *Begins his Mission*.—For a long period he continued to prepare himself diligently; and at length after an absence of twenty-three years, he returned to Ireland to begin

his mission; having meantime attained the rank of bishop.

47. *At Tara.*—On Easter Sunday morning he presented himself at the A.D. 433 court of king Laeghaire at Tara, and explained the leading points of the Christian doctrine to the king and his courtiers. The king's druids opposed him: but he put them down in argument and made many converts: and the monarch gave him leave to preach through the kingdom.

48. *Successful Work.*—After this he traversed the five provinces, labouring hard and converting thousands wherever he went: and he sent his disciples to those parts that he was himself unable to visit. These also were very successful; so that in the course of some years the people of almost the whole country were converted: and everywhere churches and monasteries were built.

49. *His Death.*—He made Armagh the religious head of all Ireland: A.D. 455 and after more than thirty years of unceasing toil, he ended his glorious life at Saul in the county Down, in or about the year 465. In the whole history of Christianity we do not find a more successful missionary than St. Patrick.

CHAPTER IV.

RELIGION AND LEARNING IN EARLY
CHRISTIAN IRELAND.

50. *Progress of Learning.*—After the time of St. Patrick learning and religion spread and flourished in Ireland: and in course of time there were more learned and holy men in it than in any other country of Europe; so that Ireland came to be called the "Island of Saints and Scholars."

51. *The Great Colleges.*—Great numbers of schools and colleges were established, in many of which there were very large numbers of students—two or three thousand in some. The professors and teachers were so celebrated for their learning and holy lives, that persons came to be taught by them from England, Scotland, France, Germany, and other countries of the Continent.

These colleges were chiefly carried on in the monasteries by priests and monks; but there were many colleges also conducted by laymen, for teaching law, medicine, and general learning; and even in the monastic schools, some of the professors were distinguished laymen.

52. *Irish Missionaries on the Continent.*—Hundreds of zealous Irish missionaries

travelled all over the Continent, risking, and often losing, their lives to convert the rude and fierce people of those regions; and many of these holy men are remembered and revered in continental towns to this day. Moreover, Irish professors were employed in nearly all the colleges of England, France, Italy, and Germany.

53. "*Patrick, Brigit, and Columkille.*"—Among all the illustrious early Irish saints, three are especially distinguished as the Three Patrons of Ireland—St. Patrick; St. Brigit of Kildare (died A.D. 523); and St. Columba or Columkille. Columba, leaving his native Tirconnell (now Donegal), settled in Iona, and converted the Picts of Scotland; died A.D. 597.

54. *Decline of Learning.*—For three or four centuries after the time of St. Patrick, the monasteries were protected, schools increased, and learning flourished. But when the Danes came all was changed; many of the great schools were broken up; and the progress of learning was arrested.

CHAPTER V.

THE DANES.

55. *Raids on Europe*.—Towards the close of the eighth century the Danes began to make descents on the coasts of Europe. They came from the shores of the Baltic; and they sent forth swarms of daring and desperate marauders, who for two centuries kept Europe in continual terror.

56. *First Raids on Ireland*.—They appeared for the first time on the Irish coast in 795, when they plundered the church on Lambay Island near Dublin. After that they came very often. They plundered and murdered wherever they came, and as they hated Christianity and learning, they destroyed churches and monasteries both on the islands and on the mainland. And their movements were so sudden and quick that they generally made their escape before the people had time to intercept them.

57. *Turgesius*.—At last their scattered parties were all united under their greatest leader, Thorgils or Turgesius.

A.D. 832 He devastated both north and south, and destroyed a vast number of monasteries and schools; till at

last he was defeated and taken prisoner by Malachi king of Meath, who A.D. 845 caused him to be drowned in Lough Owel. This brave king became *ard-ri* (as Malachi I) in the following year.

58. *Turn of the Tide.*—The Danes were often intercepted and slaughtered by the Irish kings and chiefs; this however had not much effect in stopping their ravages. But the tide began to turn towards the end of the tenth century, when two great men began their career—Brian Boru king of Munster, and Malachi II, who became king of Ireland in 980.

CHAPTER VI.

BRIAN BORU AND THE BATTLE OF CLONTARF.

59. *The Dalcassians.*—Brian Boru and his elder brother Mahon belonged to the Dalcassians, a brave and powerful tribe who occupied the district now called the county Clare. This family (who subsequently took the name of O'Brien) had for generations

given kings to Thomond; and Mahon himself
now became king of all
A.D. 964 Munster, both Thomond and
Desmond.

60. *Mahon and Brian*.—At this time the Danes held the chief fortresses of Munster, including Limerick, Cork and Waterford, from which they issued forth and committed dreadful ravages all over the province. Mahon and Brian, unable to withstand them, had to take refuge among the woods and mountain solitudes of Clare, where they defended themselves as best they could.

61. *Battle of Sulcoit*.—At length they determined to make one more combined effort; and collecting their people,
A.D. 968 they encountered the main
army of the Munster Danes
at Sulcoit, now Sollohod, near the present Limerick Junction, and utterly defeated them.

62. *Murder of Mahon*.—After this, Mahon, with the help of his brave young brother, crushed them in several other battles; but he was at last treacherously invited to a feast and murdered by two base Irish chiefs named Molloy and Donovan, aided by the Danish king Ivar.

(D778)

C

63. *Brian King of all Munster.*—Then Brian became king, first of Thomond, and soon after of all Munster. His first care was to avenge his brother's murder, which he did by defeating and slaying the three assassins one after another.

64. *Covenant of Malachi and Brian.*—After Malachi had become king of Ireland (in 980), he and Brian quarrelled and fought; but at length they agreed to divide Ireland between them, Malachi taking Leth-Conn, and Brian Leth-Mow (32).

65. *Battle of Glenmama.*—After this they united heartily against the
A.D. 999 Danes, whom they defeated in
a great battle at Glenmama,
in Wicklow, slaying 4000 of them.

66. *Brian Ard-ri.*—Soon afterwards Brian deposed Malachi, and made
A.D. 1002 himself supreme king of Ire-
land. His palace, which was
named *Kincora*, was situated on the spot
now occupied by the town of Killaloe.
During the next dozen years he applied
himself to works of peace. He restored the
monasteries, colleges, churches, fortresses,
and bridges that had been destroyed by the
Danes; and he repressed evil-doers and
caused the laws to be obeyed, so that the

country was less disturbed and more prosperous than it had been for a long time before.

67. *Preparing for Battle.*—But the Danes did not wish to be ruled by king Brian; and they, and the traitorous Mailmora, the Irish king of Leinster, rose up in rebellion.

They were determined to risk another battle, for which they made great preparations, by bringing to Dublin Danish leaders and troops from England and Scotland and from many countries of the Continent. Brian also collected his men and marched towards Dublin, where he was joined by Malachi; and when both armies were ready, the Danes and Mailmora made up their minds to fight on Good

A.D. 1014 Friday, the 23rd of April.

The good king Brian did not wish to fight on that solemn day; but he was not able to avoid it.

68. *The Battle of Clontarf.*—The place of battle was the level plain of Clontarf beside the sea near Dublin: there were about 20,000 men each side. The king was seventy-three years of age; and his friends persuaded him to stay in his tent and leave the command to his eldest son Murrogh.

Riding up to the ranks just as they were about to engage, and holding aloft in his hand a crucifix before their eyes, he reminded them that on that day their good Lord had died for them, and told them to fight bravely for their religion and their country. Then giving the signal he retired to his tent.

The battle began at sunrise and continued the whole day. At last in the evening the Danes turned and fled; and vast numbers of them were slaughtered or driven into the sea and drowned. Nearly all the chief leaders on both sides were killed, including the king and prince Murrough on the Irish side, and on the other side the traitor Mailmora.

69. *Death of Brian*.—While the aged king himself was praying in his tent, a Danish chief, fleeing from the field, attacked him with a battleaxe; but the great old warrior, springing to his feet, cut off the assailant's two legs with one blow of his heavy sword. But the furious viking, even while falling, cleft the king's head with the axe and killed him.

The battle of Clontarf, which was the last great struggle between Christianity and

paganism, crushed forever the power of the Danes in Ireland.*

70. *Death of Malachi.*—After the death of Brian, Malachi resumed the throne; and having put down some feeble
A.D. 1022 attempts at rebellion, he died in the seventy-third year of his age, after a life of noble deeds.

CHAPTER VII.

THE EVE OF THE INVASION.

71. *Struggles for the Throne.*—A century and a half of great confusion followed after the death of king Malachi; for the provincial kings waged incessant war with one another, striving who should be *ard-ri*. At first the struggle lay between the *O'Neills* of Ulster and the *O'Briens* of Thomond—the descendants of Brian Boru—till at last the *O'Briens* went down; and next between the *O'Neills* and the *O'Conors* of Connaught, till the *O'Conors* finally triumphed. These

* For a full description of this great battle, see my "*Child's History of Ireland*," p. 107. There is a still more detailed account in my "*Short History of Ireland*," p. 210.

dissensions greatly weakened the country, so that it fell an easy prey to the invaders when they came.

72. "*Kings with Opposition.*"—During this time there were eight provincial kings who are usually reckoned as kings of Ireland; but not one of them was powerful enough to rule the whole country; and they are commonly called "kings with opposition":

1. Donogh, the son of Brian Boru claimed the throne after the death of Malachi. He was at length deposed by his nephew, Turlogh O'Brien, in conjunction with Dermot Mac Mailnamo.

2. Dermot Mac Mailnamo, king of Leinster, fosterfather and friend of Turlogh O'Brien, was killed in battle (A.D. 1072).

3. Turlogh O'Brien, grandson of Brian Boru, died in Kincora in 1086.

4. Murkertagh O'Brien (son of Turlogh O'Brien), a powerful king, contended for supremacy for more than a quarter of a century with Donall O'Loughlin, king of Ulster (of the family of O'Neill). Murkertagh died in 1119, and with him passed away for ever the predominance of the O'Brien family.

5. Donall O'Loughlin, the great rival of Murkertagh, died in 1121.

6. Turlogh O'Connor, king of Connaught, contended with Murkertagh O'Loughlin, king of Ulster: died 1156.

7. Murkertagh O'Loughlin contended with the two O'Conors, Turlogh and Roderick; he was killed in battle by his own people (A.D. 1166).

8. Roderick O'Connor, son of Turlogh O'Connor, became king of Ireland on the death of Murkertagh O'Loughlin. During his reign occurred the Invasion by the *Anglo-Normans*: he was the last native king of Ireland.

PART III

THE PERIOD OF THE INVASION..

(1172—1547.)

IN this Third Part is told the story of the Anglo-Norman Invasion, ending with the reign of Henry VIII, the first English monarch who assumed the title of King of Ireland.

Henry II did not conquer Ireland: it took more than *four centuries* to do that—probably the longest time ever occupied in the conquest of a country. This was the result of the mistaken course of action followed by Henry and his successors. The worst mistake of all was designating and treating the natives as “Irish enemies,” and denying them the protection of English law, which forced them to fight continually for their lives, and prevented them settling down under the new government.

If proper measures had been adopted the country could have been brought in a reasonable time to submit quietly, which would have spared both natives and settlers centuries of bloodshed and misery.

CHAPTER I.

THE FIRST ANGLO-NORMAN
ADVENTURERS.

73. *Contemporary Irish Kings.*—At the beginning of the period we are now entering on, Roderick O'Connor king of Connaught was supreme monarch of Ireland. The other provincial kings were:—O'Neill of Ulster; O'Melaghlin of Meath; Dermot Mac Carthy of Desmond; Donald O'Brien of Limerick—*i.e.*, of Thomond; and Dermot Mac Murrough of Leinster.

74. *Dermot Mac Murrough.*—This Dermot was large-bodied, strong and brave, but a cruel and treacherous tyrant; and he was as much hated in his own day as his memory has been hated ever since. His misdeeds at last became unbearable, so that he was
deposed and banished by

A.D. 1166 Roderick O'Connor and others.

He went straight to the great king Henry II of England for help, offering, if reinstated, to hold his kingdom of Leinster under him, and to acknowledge him as lord and master. Henry eagerly accepted

the offer; for he had long intended to invade Ireland; and he permitted any of his subjects that pleased to go and help Dermot to regain his kingdom.

75. *First Expedition.*—Richard de Clare, Earl of Pembroke, commonly known as Strongbow, agreed to go, on condition that he should get Dermot's daughter Eva in marriage, and should succeed to the kingdom of Leinster. Strongbow's friends, Robert Fitzstephen, Maurice Prendergast, Maurice Fitzgerald, and Raymond Fitzgerald, better known as Raymond le Gros, landed, one after another, with a total force of about 2000 men; and Strongbow himself came the following year

A.D. 1170 with a much larger army.

And aided by Dermot they took Wexford, Waterford, and Dublin, and forced king Roderick to restore Dermot. Then Strongbow married Eva; and he and the others got large grants of land from Dermot, and settled down permanently in the country.

76. *King Henry in Ireland.*—At last king Henry himself came over with

A.D. 1171 an overwhelming army; and although there had been a good deal of resistance and bloodshed up

to this, no one thought of opposing such a great force; and Henry received the submission of most of the Irish kings.

And he gave away nearly the *whole of Ireland*—which did not belong to him—to his followers, all of them great and powerful barons. Leinster was granted to Strongbow; Meath to Hugh de Lacy; and Ulster to John de Courcy. And having made De Lacy chief governor he returned to England.

77. *English Governors*.—From that time forth the kings of England ruled the English settlement in Ireland by governors who commonly resided in Dublin, and who were known by various titles, such as viceroy, lieutenant, lord lieutenant, lord justice or justiciary, governor, &c. A person appointed to govern in place of an absent viceroy was called deputy or lord deputy.

78. *Turmoil*.—The moment the king had left Ireland troubles began everywhere; for his followers plundered and harassed the unfortunate natives without any restraint. After a time Strongbow was appointed viceroy, whose best general was Raymond le Gros. Their most active opponent was

Donall O'Brien, king of Thomond, a much abler leader than king Roderick, who was a man of feeble character. And what added greatly to their difficulties and dangers was that the Irish who hitherto had offered no very serious resistance, now began to learn the Norman methods of warfare, and to turn them with success against the invaders. The saintly and patriotic archbishop of Dublin, Laurence O'Toole, endeavoured to unite the kings and chiefs, and encouraged them in their endeavours to expel the strangers.

79. *Defeat of Strongbow: his Death.*—In the absence of Raymond who had gone home for a time to Wales, Donall O'Brien and King Roderick defeated Strongbow at Thurles, almost destroyed his army, and afterwards besieged him in Waterford. But Raymond soon returned and released him; and having defeated O'Brien took Limerick by storm. Soon after this Strongbow died; and Raymond retiring into private life, went to reside on his estates.

80. *De Courcy.*—Sir John de Courcy, a

man of extraordinary strength and courage, marched north to conquer A.D. 1177 Ulster, which king Henry had granted to him five years before. He entrenched himself in Downpatrick, and defeated the Ulstermen in a great battle; but they subsequently defeated him in turn several times, and it was with much difficulty he held his ground. He strengthened himself however as years went on, and built castles all over Ulster. After a most adventurous life he dropped into obscurity, and no one can tell how or when he died.

81. *Prince John*.—King Henry, hearing worse accounts every day of the state of Ireland, sent over his son, Prince John,

with an army, to restore tranquillity. But this only made matters worse; for the prince acted in a very silly manner, and insulted the Irish nobles who came to pay their respects to him. So they retired in anger; and collecting their forces, attacked the English settlements everywhere, destroying the castles, and killing great numbers of the settlers. At last the king recalled the prince; but this did not help much to quell the disturbances.

While Prince John was in Ireland his secretary was Gerald Barry or *Giraldus Cambrensis*, a Welsh priest who afterwards wrote a description of Ireland in Latin.

82. *De Lacy*.—Hugh de Lacy was the most powerful of all the Anglo-Irish barons. He was for a time viceroy, and built many castles in Meath and Leinster. He married a daughter of king Roderick O'Connor, which gave him still more influence, so that at last he drew upon himself the jealousy of king Henry, who blamed him for much of the disturbance of the country. One day while he was inspecting one of his new

castles, a young Irishman, in
A.D. 1186 revenge for De Lacy's seizure
of lands, suddenly struck off
his head with an axe and escaped into the
woods.

83.—*King John's Visit*.—John, after he
had become king of England,

A.D. 1210 visited Ireland, and having
parcelled out those districts
occupied by the English into *twelve counties*,
he made arrangements for the better govern-
ment of the country, and returned to
England the same year.

CHAPTER II.

A CENTURY OF TURMOIL.

84. *Anarchy*.—During the last years of king John's reign, Ireland was comparatively quiet. But after his death the turmoil began again; and bad as was the condition of the country before the Invasion, it was now much worse. There were more materials for strife; for the barons were continually quarrelling and fighting with each other, as well as with the Irish; and the Irish chiefs were perpetually fighting among themselves, as well as against the Anglo-Normans. And all this time there was scarcely any government in Dublin, worthy of the name, to keep down the turbulent nobles and chiefs.

The worst of this state of things was that the common people, who wished merely to live and bring up their families in peace, were kept in a constant state of misery. And in this respect the poor people of the colony were just as badly off as their Irish neighbours.

85. *English Power Waning*.—Another re-

sult was this. The Irish, taking advantage of the dissensions of the barons, recovered a great part of their lands: so that for more than a century and a half after the time of John, the English power in Ireland grew gradually feebler, and the districts occupied by the settlement grew smaller. It was only in the time of the *Tudors* that the waning power of the English began to recover.

86. *English Law denied to the Irish.*—The colonists were under English law; but this law did not apply to the Irish; so that an Englishman might injure or even kill an Irishman without any danger of punishment. In the reigns of Edward I. and Edward III the Irish petitioned to be placed under English law for protection; but the selfish Anglo-Irish barons persuaded the kings not to grant the petition.

87. *Bruce's Expedition.* — Immediately after the battle of *Bannockburn*, Edward Bruce, brother of king Robert Bruce, landed at Larne with a
A.D. 1315 Scottish army of 6000 men,
at the invitation of some of the
Ulster chiefs, to expel the English and make himself king of Ireland. He traversed the country for three years and a half, and

beat the English in eighteen battles; but he was at last defeated and slain

A.D. 1318 at *Faughart*, near Dundalk.

Though his invasion failed, it almost destroyed the English power in Ireland, and weakened the government for generations.

88. *Battle of Athenry*.—While Bruce was in Ireland, the Irish under Felim O'Connor king of Connaught, were defeated by the English in a terrible battle at Athenry (in 1316), and 11,000 of them slain.

CHAPTER III.

THE STATUTE OF KILKENNY.

89. "*More Irish than the Irish themselves.*" —After the Bruce expedition the English joined the Irish in great numbers all over the country. They did so for their own protection, as the government was too weak to protect them.

But there was another cause. The government most unwisely treated the older colonists—the "*Old English*" as they were called—with great harshness, and put over their heads "*New English*"—i.e., born

(D778)

D

Englishmen just come to Ireland, who treated them with contempt and insulted them at every opportunity. Englishmen were favoured and got all the good situations, while the Old English were slighted.

The colonists were incensed at this treatment; and a large proportion of them were driven to hate the government. And they intermarried with the Irish, adopted the native dress, customs and laws, took Irish names, and spoke the Irish language: so that an English writer complained that they became "more Irish than the Irish themselves." These were called "*Degenerate English*" by the loyal English people, who hated them even more than they hated the natives, and were by them heartily hated in turn. So far was this estrangement driven, that later on some of the Anglo-Irish lords and gentlemen were among the most dangerous rebels against the government.

90. *The Pale and its People*.—Almost the only part of the settlement that remained English, and loyal to England, was the district round Dublin, which was afterwards called the *Pale*. The poor settlers of this district were all this time in a most miserable condition. They were scourged by the Black Death and other terrible plagues, and

oppressed and robbed by their own rulers. And as the government was not able to afford them protection, they had to pay "*Black Rents*" to some of the Irish chiefs round the borders, to protect them from the fierce attacks of the natives.

91. *Prince Lionel's Remedy*.—In this evil state of affairs king Edward III sent over his son Lionel, afterwards A.D. 1361 duke of Clarence, as Lord lieutenant. This young prince had an insane hatred of everything Irish; and he caused the act called

A.D. 1367 the *Statute of Kilkenny* to be passed by the Irish parliament hoping it would put a stop to the Old English joining the Irish, and would save the colony from destruction. This act forbade the colonists to intermarry with the Irish or to have communication of any kind with them. It was an attempt to separate the two races for evermore. But it was found impossible to carry it out; so that after a time this mischievous law became a dead letter.

92. *Absenteeism*.—About this time attempts were made to prevent landlords from being absentees: that is, landlords who lived in England and drew their rents from Ire-

land, but did no good for the country, and cared nothing about it. But these attempts also failed.

CHAPTER IV.

THE TWO EXPEDITIONS OF RICHARD II.

93. *First Expedition.*—During the early part of Richard II's reign, Ireland, instead of improving, was going from bad to worse; and at last the king resolved to come hither himself. He landed at Waterford A.D. 1394 with 34,000 men, the largest army ever yet brought to Ireland. On his march to Dublin he was greatly harassed by Art Mac Murrough Kavanagh the renowned king of Leinster, who attacked the army from the woods and bogs, and killed great numbers.

94. *Submission of Chiefs.*—The Irish chiefs seeing they could not resist this great force, came forward—about 75 of them, including Mac Murrough the most dreaded of all—and made submission. But this submission, which was made under compulsion, was nothing better than a sham; for no sooner had the king sailed away—which he

did after a stay of nine months—than they threw up their allegiance, and the fighting went on worse than before.

95. *Second Expedition.*—The king was greatly enraged at this, and more especially as his cousin, young Roger Mortimer, who was to be the next king of England, was killed in one of the battles. So he resolved on a second visit to avenge his cousin's death, and especially to chastise Mac Murrough.

96. *Difficulties and Dangers.*—On his march from Waterford he got A.D. 1399 entangled among the hills and bogs of Wicklow, where the men could get no provisions; and what with storms, hardship, and hunger, and with Mac Murrough's fierce onslaughts, the whole army was near perishing. At last they struggled through the mountains and reached the Wicklow coast, where they found three ships sent from Dublin laden with provisions which saved the army. Before Richard could succeed in crushing Mac Murrough, he was recalled to England by bad news: and no sooner had he arrived than he was taken prisoner and a new king, Henry IV, placed on the throne.

CHAPTER V.

POYNINGS' LAW.

97. *Further Decay.*—For the past century and a half the English kings had been so taken up with wars in France, Scotland, and Wales, that they had no time to attend to Ireland; so that the settlement grew smaller and weaker year by year.

But during the Wars of the Roses, which began in 1454 and lasted about thirty years, the colonists fared worse than ever; for all their chief men in Ireland went over with their followers to take part in the war, leaving the settlement unprotected. And when at last the war was ended by the accession of Henry VII in 1485, the Pale was reduced so much that it included only the county of Louth and about half those of Dublin, Meath, and Kildare. But matters began to improve during the reign of Henry VII.

98. *Simnel and Warbeck.*—The two pretenders to the English throne—Lambert Simnel and Perkin Warbeck, were received very favourably by the *Anglo-Irish* nobility and gentry; who actually proclaimed Simnel

king and crowned him in Dublin. This so provoked king Henry VII. that he sent over Sir Edward Poynings to take measures for preventing any such occurrence in the future.

99. *Parliamentary Independence Destroyed.*—In a parliament convened at Drogheda, Poynings caused to be passed the act called from him

A.D. 1494 *Poynings' Law.* This law ordained that no parliament was in future to be held in Ireland till the king and council of England had been informed of all the bills to be brought forward in it, and had given their consent.

Up to this the Irish parliament had met whenever the chief governor and his council thought fit, and had made any laws they pleased. But this act took away all its independence, and placed it entirely in the hands of the English king and council.

CHAPTER VI.

THE GERALDINES.

100. *Two main Branches.*—The illustrious family of the Geraldines or Fitzgeralds descend mainly from Maurice Fitzgerald

(75) one of the first of the invaders. There were two main branches of them—one in Leinster, whose chiefs became *earls of Kildare* and finally *dukes of Leinster*; and the other in Munster, whose heads were *earls of Desmond*.

Both branches had become thoroughly Irish and spoke and read the Irish language (89); and the natives were as much attached to them as to their own Celtic chiefs. From the time of the Invasion the Geraldines had played an important part in the history of Ireland.

101. *Garrett, the Great Earl of Kildare*.—The chief man of the Leinster branch at the time we are now treating of was Garrett or Gerald Fitzgerald, the eighth earl of Kildare—the Great Earl as he was called. He was made lord lieutenant of Ireland by Henry VII, and he was so warlike that he spent nearly all his time in fighting.

102. *Battle of Knockdoe*.—He and a large number of the Irish chiefs of the north of Ireland, fought a great battle

A.D. 1504 at Knockdoe near Galway against William Burke of Clanrickard and the southern Irish chiefs, in which Burke and the southern men were defeated with a loss of 2,000 men.

103. *Garrett Oge, 9th Earl of Kildare.*—

After his death his son Garrett
A.D. 1513 Oge Fitzgerald was appointed
lord deputy by Henry VIII.

This earl was quite as fond of fighting as his father had been; and was very successful in his expeditions against the Irish chiefs.

The Butlers of Leinster, another great Anglo-Irish family, whose heads were *earls of Ormond*, were rivals of the Geraldines; and there was a bitter feud between the present earl of Kildare and the earl of Ormond, who was jealous of Kildare's great success.

104. *Accusations against Kildare.*—

Kildare was summoned to England three times to answer accusations made against him by Ormond and others. Being a very clever man he managed to get clear on the first two occasions, and returned in triumph to Ireland.

105. *War between O'Neills & O'Donnells.*

—During his first absence a destructive war broke out between the O'Neills of Tyrone and the O'Donnells of Tirconnell; and the O'Donnells, though the
A.D. 1522 fewer in number, surprised the O'Neills in a night attack at Knockavoe, near Strabane, slew 900 of

them, and took possession of their camp. This bitter war continued for many years after the battle of Knockavoe.

106. *Kildare's Career.*—After Kildare's return the second time from London no one was able to oppose him, and he used his great powers unsparingly to crush his enemies. Some he dismissed from high government positions; he ravaged the territory of the Butlers; he drew around him the most powerful of the Irish chiefs; and to two of them he gave his two daughters in marriage, in open violation of the Statute of Kilkenny (91).

107. *Summoned and goes to England.*—His enemies kept watching him narrowly, and sent damaging reports about him to the king, who ordered him to England a third time. He delayed as long as he could; but there came at last a peremptory mandate that he dare not disobey; and with a heavy heart he set out, leaving as his deputy his son Thomas.

108. *Rebellion of Silken Thomas.*—Lord Thomas Fitzgerald, who was afterwards known as "Silken Thomas," from the gorgeous trappings of himself and his retinue, was then only twenty years of age, of a noble generous disposition, but quite

inexperienced and unsuspecting. His family had numerous enemies, who succeeded in ruining him by spreading a false report that his father had been beheaded in England. The impetuous young lord fell into the trap and rose at once in rebellion.

A.D. 1534 In the very beginning, some of his followers committed a terrible crime: they murdered Dr. John Allen, archbishop of Dublin, who had been at enmity with the Geraldines. The earl of Kildare, hearing in London of his son's rebellion, took to his bed and died in a few days.

Lord Thomas was joined by several powerful Irish chiefs, and the war and havoc went on for about a year, till the English Pale was reduced to a frightful state: three-fourths of Kildare and a great part of Meath burned and depopulated. And to add to the miseries of the people the plague was raging all over the country.

109. *Six Geraldines Executed*.—At length his strong castle of Maynooth was taken by storm, and he was forced

A.D. 1535 to surrender, on promise of life, which ended the rebellion. He was taken to England along with his five uncles, who had discountenanced the

rebellion; notwithstanding which, and though Lord Thomas had been promised his life, the whole six were beheaded in England by order of Henry VIII in 1537.

CHAPTER VII.

GENERAL SUBMISSION.

110. *Henry's Quarrel with the Pope.*— A few years before the time we have now arrived at, Henry VIII had begun his quarrel with Rome, the upshot of which was that he threw off all allegiance to the Pope, and made himself supreme head of the Church in England. He made little or no change in religion: on the contrary he did his best to maintain the chief doctrines of the Catholic Church and to resist the Reformation. All he wanted was that he and not the Pope should be head.

111. *Spiritual Supremacy.* — In Ireland nearly all the chiefs were brought to acknowledge the king's supremacy, that is to say, that he was supreme head of the Church. But the people refused to do so; and although a good deal of force was used, no one acknowledged Henry's supremacy, except the chiefs and some few persons holding government situations in Dublin.

112. *Suppression of Monasteries.*—Nearly all the monasteries in Ireland were suppressed, and their property was taken from them, some of it being kept for the king and some given to laymen.

113. *Henry, King of Ireland.*—Hitherto the English kings had borne the title of Lord of Ireland; but now, at the king's desire, the parliament in Dublin conferred on him the title of King of Ireland. On this occasion several Irish A.D. 1541 chiefs had titles conferred on them, among others, Conn O'Neill, who was made earl of Tyrone.

114. *Henry's general Treatment of Ireland.*—We have no concern here with the proceedings of Henry VIII in England. Putting out of sight the question of supremacy and of the suppression of the Irish monasteries, he treated Ireland considerately; and he steadily refused to expel the Irish to make room for new colonies, though often urged to it. Accordingly at the end of his reign the country was at peace, and the English power in Ireland was stronger than ever it had been before. It would have been well for both England and Ireland if a similar course of treatment had been followed in the succeeding reigns.

PART IV.

THE PERIOD OF INSURRECTION, CONFISCATION, AND PLANTATION

(1547—1695.)

THERE were four great rebellions during this period—the rebellion of Shane O'Neill; the Geraldine rebellion, the rebellion of Hugh O'Neill; and the rebellion of 1641. And after all these came the War of the Revolution (Chap. xiii.)

The causes of rebellion were mainly two:—First, the attempt to extend the Reformation to Ireland; second, the Plantations.

The Plantations continued almost without a break during the whole of this period, that is, for a century and a half.

CHAPTER I.

NEW CAUSES OF STRIFE.

115. *Two Government Projects.*—If there had been no additional disturbing influences

after the reign of Henry VIII, it is probable that Ireland would have begun to settle down in peace. But now came two new elements of discord; for the Government entered on the task of forcing the Irish people to become Protestant; and they began to *plant* the country with colonies from England and Scotland, for whom the native inhabitants were to be expelled. The Irish people resisted both: one project—the Plantations — partially succeeded: — the other—the religious one—failed.

116. *Harshness of Government.*—There were other evil influences also, one of the worst of which was the unnecessary and most unwise harshness of the government, by which they turned both natives and colonists against them.

117. *Beginning of the Reformation.*—On the accession of Edward VI, A.D. 1547 the Reformation was pushed forward with great success in England. In Ireland the Protestant doctrines and forms of worship were adopted by the government: and strong measures were taken to make the people also adopt them, which were quite unsuccessful.

118. *Catholicity Restored.*—Queen Mary succeeded Edward VI in 1553, and imme-

diately restored the Catholic religion both in England and Ireland. In Ireland the Catholics were now the masters: but neither they nor the government persecuted the Protestants; all of whom were permitted to worship in peace.

119. *Protestant Church established.* —

Elizabeth next succeeded, and A.D. 1558 changed the State religion in both countries back again to Protestantism; and it remained so in Ireland till the disestablishment of the church in 1869

120. *Forcing the Reformation.*—In the Pale and a few other places fines and other punishments were inflicted on the Catholics to make them attend Protestant worship and take the Oath of Supremacy (*i.e.*, an oath that the queen was supreme head of the church); but all in vain. A great many of the Catholic priests were, however, forced to leave their churches. But in the rest of Ireland the government had no influence, and the Catholics were not disturbed.

CHAPTER II.

THE REBELLION OF SHANE O'NEILL

121. *His first rising.*—Shane O'Neill, well known in history as "John the Proud," was the son of Conn O'Neill who had been made earl of Tyrone by Henry VIII (113). The government did not wish Shane to succeed his father, intending the earldom for another. But Shane, when he came of age, disputed this; and his father taking his part, was brought prisoner A.D. 1551 to Dublin by the government: on which Shane rose up in open rebellion.

122. *A Visit of Peace.*—During the next ten years—from 1551 to 1561—the government sent many expeditions north to reduce him, but he held his ground in spite of all. At last at the end of 1561 he visited London on the queen's invitation, and peace was made.

123. *His second rising.*—But during his stay in London the government, while he was in their power, treated him very unfairly, forcing him against his will to sign certain promises; which so incensed him that

(D778)

E

on his return to Ireland he broke out again; and the war went on as before.

124. *The Scots of Ulster*.—There was at this time, settled in the Glens of Antrim, a colony of Scots, from the western coasts and islands of Scotland; and Shane, crossing the Bann, attacked and defeated them, killing 700 of them.

125. *Shane's Defeat and Death*.—At last he was defeated, not by the Government, but by his neighbours the O'Donnells of Tirconnell. This quite ruined him; and he foolishly fled for refuge to the

A.D. 1567 Scots, who, at a feast, fell upon him and his escort and murdered them all. This ended the rebellion.

CHAPTER III.

THE GERALDINE REBELLION.

126. *Broils of Fitzgeralds and Butlers*.—The Fitzgeralds and the Butlers still continued their old strife (103); and they had now an additional motive for quarrel, for the Butlers had become Protestant while

the Fitzgeralds remained Catholic. Their broils were so constant that a large part of the south of Ireland was wasted and depopulated by them.

127. *State of Connaught.* — Connaught was in a state almost as bad, on account of the quarrels of Burke earl of Clanrickard and his sons with each other and with their neighbours.

128. *Arrest of the two Fitzgeralds.*—The government were inclined to favour the earl of Ormond, the head of
A.D. 1567 the Butlers, and they arrested the earl of Desmond. But they also seized without any justification, John Fitzgerald, Desmond's brother, who had been well affected to the government; and they kept both brothers in London for six years. This turned John from a loyal subject to a bitter rebel.

129. *Fitzmaurice's Rising.*—Reports had been going round that large districts of the south were to be cleared of Irish to make way for English settlers, which, coupled with the proceedings in Dublin to force the Reformation (120), produced great disquietude and discontent. The arrest of the two Fitzgeralds brought matters to a head; and their cousin, James Fitzmaurice, rose

in rebellion, in which he was joined by most of the leading men of the south, both Irish and Anglo-Irish, all of them Catholic. After a struggle of several years, the government proved too strong
 A.D. 1573 for Fitzmaurice, and he was forced to submit. Whereupon the earl of Desmond and his brother John were permitted to return home.

130. *Rebellion renewed*.—But the insurrection blazed up again both in Munster and Leinster. Fitzmaurice was killed in a skirmish, and John Fitzgerald took command of the rebel forces; at the same time Desmond himself was goaded to join them by the harsh proceedings of the lord justice. In Leinster, James Eustace viscount Baltin-glass, rose up and, with the aid of the great Wicklow chief Fiach Mac
 A.D. 1580 Hugh O'Byrne, inflicted a disastrous defeat on the newly appointed deputy lord Grey of Wilton.

131. *Grey's Cruelties*.—In the same year a small force of 700 Spaniards and Italians landed in Munster to aid the insurgents; but lord Grey forced them to surrender, after which he had them all massacred. But Grey committed such dreadful cruelties that he drove chiefs and people into rebellion

everywhere. When this came to the ears of Queen Elizabeth she recalled him.

132. *End of Rebellion: Results.*—At last the earl of Desmond was killed, which brought this great rebellion to

A.D. 1583 an end. It had made Munster a desert, for both the government forces and the insurgents burned, ravaged, and destroyed everything in the districts belonging to their adversaries: so that over large territories neither man nor beast was to be seen. Thousands died of starvation, and those who survived war and famine suffered unspeakable miseries.

CHAPTER IV.

THE PLANTATIONS.

133. *New Method of Plantation.*—Ever since the time of the invasion colonies of English had been settling in Ireland. But the general run of the natives—the tillers of the soil—were not very greatly disturbed, most of them being permitted to remain, though under new masters, and perhaps with diminished possessions. But in the time of

Queen Mary a different course of action was pursued. Then the regular clearance plantations were commenced, that is to say, the native people were expelled or exterminated and the colonists put in their place.

134. *Plantation of Leix and Offaly.*—

This new form of plantation A.D. 1555 began in Leix and Offaly, two old districts in the present Queen's and King's Counties, Leix owned and occupied by the O'Moores, and Offaly by the O'Conors. This gave rise to a terrible and cruel war of extermination, in which the Planters were aided by government forces. The natives resisted, and for many years there were constant conflicts and great bloodshed. But the Celtic tribes at length went down under superior force.

135. *Plantation of Antrim.*—The next

plantation was attempted by A.D. 1573 the earl of Essex, in Antrim, which had been confiscated—*i.e.*, seized by the Crown, after the death of Shane O'Neill. But this plantation failed; for though Essex committed horrible atrocities, he was at last driven from Ulster, and died in Dublin.

136. *Plantation of Munster.*—Munster came next. Here the vast estates of the earl

of Desmond and his adherents were confiscated, and settlers were invited.

A.D. 1586 The usual dreadful scenes were enacted; but this plantation was also in great part a failure; nearly half the old gentry were dispossessed for English undertakers; but most of the common people were left undisturbed.

137. *Effects of Plantation.*—All the plantations were much like those described here. They caused fearful bloodshed and misery while they lasted; and their evil influence is felt to this day, in connexion with land.

CHAPTER V.

THE REBELLION OF HUGH O'NEILL.

138. *Early Life.*—Hugh O'Neill, who belonged to the great Tyrone family (34) was educated among the English, and began his military life in the queen's service as captain of a troop of horse. In 1585 he was made *earl of Tyrone*, in succession to his grandfather, Conn O'Neill (113). He had in the beginning no intention of rebelling; but his determination to recover all the influence his ancestors possessed in Ulster, coupled with the efforts made by the au-

thorities to spread the Reformation, drew him gradually more and more in opposition to the government, and finally into rebellion.

139.—*His Marriage.*—He married a sister of Sir Henry Bagenal, marshal or military commander of Ireland. Sir Henry was bitterly opposed to the match, and ever afterwards thwarted and exasperated him as much as he could, and counteracted his efforts for peace.

140. *Capture of Red Hugh O'Donnell.*—For many years before this the O'Donnells of Tirconnell had been on the side of the government; but this was all changed by a dishonourable proceeding of

A.D. 1587 the lord deputy, who treacherously seized young Hugh O'Donnell—Hugh Roe or Red Hugh as he was called—the chief's son, and imprisoned him in Dublin Castle. When, four years later, Red Hugh made his escape, he threw himself at once into the ranks of the rebels, and subsequently became O'Neill's best ally.*

141. *O'Neill rises.*—At the end of 1584

* For the full story of Red Hugh's capture, imprisonment, and escape, see my *Child's History of Ireland*, p. 232.

O'Neill's friendly relations with the government ceased; after which he was in open hostility. Yet he was still anxious for peace, and the queen was equally so; and there were many conferences between him and the representatives of the government. But they all came to nothing; for his main demand—namely, that his people and himself should be allowed to practise their religion, was obstinately refused.

142. *Portmore*.—For the next three years there were many conflicts, in which O'Neill was almost always victorious. On the Blackwater, about five miles from Armagh, there was a strong fort called Portmore, which was occupied by 300 English soldiers under Captain Williams, a very brave and determined officer. This fort was closely invested by O'Neill, who however was unable to take it, on account of the vigilance and bravery of Williams. But the garrison were in sore distress for food, and were obliged to eat horses, grass, and weeds to keep themselves from dying of starvation.

143. *Battle of the Yellow Ford*.—When news of this reached Dublin, marshal Bagenal persuaded the deputy and council to entrust him with the perilous task of

relieving the fort. He marched north with an army of about 4,500 men; but was intercepted by O'Neill with about an equal number, two miles from Armagh on the way to Portmore, at a place called the Yellow Ford on a small river.

In the battle fought here the English were utterly defeated, and the brave
A.D. 1598 marshal was shot dead, fighting at the head of his men.

Two thousand of the queen's army were killed, including nearly all the chief officers: and the whole of the ammunition and stores fell into the hands of the victors. This was the greatest defeat the English ever sustained in Ireland.

144. *Rebellion in Munster.*—As soon as the news of O'Neill's great victory got noised abroad, all Munster rose up in rebellion like lightning; and the lands and castles taken by the settlers a dozen years before (136) were recovered, and the settlers expelled.

145. *The Earl of Essex.*—The English government now became thoroughly alarmed, for almost the whole country outside the Pale was in successful rebellion; and the queen sent over as lord lieutenant, with an

army of 20,000, Robert earl of Essex, son of Essex of the Plantations A.D. 1599 (135). But he totally mismanaged the war, dissipated his fine army without effecting anything worth notice, and after a stay of six months, returned to England.

CHAPTER VI.

THE END OF THE O'NEILL REBELLION, AND THE FLIGHT OF THE EARLS.

146. *Mountjoy and Carew*.—For the last two years the Irish chiefs under Hugh O'Neill earl of Tyrone had been victorious almost without interruption. But now the tide began to turn; and soon came the day of defeat and disaster. The next chief governor was deputy Lord Mountjoy, with whom came over Sir George A.D. 1600 Carew as president of Munster: both men of great ability. After their arrival the fortunes of the Irish began to change for the worse.

147. *Their Operations*.—Carew carried on the war vigorously and most unrelentingly, and succeeded in crushing the rebellion in

the south. Mountjoy was equally active. He marched north from Dublin; and while O'Neill and O'Donnell were busily employed in opposing him, Sir Henry Docwra landed on the coast of Donegal with 4,000 men and abundant stores and building materials, and built strong forts on the shores of Lough Foyle—at Derry and elsewhere—in which he left garrisons.

148. *Plan for Famine.*—During these wars of the time of Elizabeth the government commanders always made it a point to destroy crops, houses, cattle, and all the poor people's means of subsistence in order to bring on famine. This cruel policy was from the beginning carefully carried out by Carew in Munster and by Mountjoy in Ulster and Connaught. The famine came in due course, and thousands of men, women and children died of starvation all over the country, so that many large districts were wholly depopulated.

149. *Battle of Kinsale.*—In September, a Spanish fleet with 3,400 troops under Don Juan del Aquila entered the harbour of Kinsale to aid the Irish, and
 A.D. 1601 took possession of the town;
 and O'Donnell and O'Neill
 marched south to aid them. Mountjoy and

Carew, with an army of 12,000 men, laid siege to the town. After a long and deadly struggle they defeated the Irish in battle; whereupon Del Aquila surrendered Kinsale. Immediately after the battle the Ulster forces made good their retreat to their own province. Red Hugh O'Donnell went for further help to Spain, where he died; and his brother Rory took his place at the head of Tirconnell.

150. *O'Neill's Submission.*—The battle of Kinsale crushed the last hopes of the Irish chiefs. O'Neill, just at the time of the death of Elizabeth and the accession of James I, made submission, and

A.D. 1603 as one of the conditions was restored to his titles and estates. Rory O'Donnell also submitted. and was made earl of Tirconnell by King James. Thus ended the great O'Neill rebellion.

151. *English Law proclaimed.*—James I abolished the Irish land customs, including Tanistry and Gavelkind (8): and a little later (in 1613) the Brehon law

A.D. 1605 was superseded, and all the people of Ireland, without distinction, were placed under English law.

152. *Flight of the Earls.*—Though king

James had treated the two earls O'Neill and O'Donnell kindly, they were used very badly in their Ulster homes. They were persecuted by the officials and adventurers around them who wanted to get their estates, and who had all along looked forward to the confiscation of Ulster. At length a false report of a fresh rebellion was got up; and the earls finding that they could not live peacefully at home, determined to leave the country; and embarking by night

A.D. 1607 with their families on the coast of Donegal, they sailed to France. From France they proceeded to Rome where they took up their residence. O'Donnell died in the following year, 1608; and O'Neill, aged, blind, and worn out by misfortune and disappointment, died in 1616.

153. *Rebellion of O'Doherty*.—The quiet that followed the rebellion was followed by the sudden and reckless rising

A.D. 1608 of Sir Cahir O'Doherty, the young chief of Innishowen in Donegal; but this was an outbreak of mere private revenge. On one occasion Sir George Paulett the governor of Derry, a man of ill temper, struck him in the face during an altercation; whereupon O'Doherty at once

rose in rebellion, took Derry by surprise, and slew Paulett with many others. But after two months fighting he was shot dead in a skirmish, and the rising suddenly collapsed.

CHAPTER VII.

THE PLANTATION OF ULSTER.

154. *Measures against "Recusants."*—The Irish believed that king James, though outwardly a Protestant, was at heart a Catholic; and they hoped he would restore the Catholic religion like queen Mary (118). But they soon found their mistake when he caused to be revived in Ireland the severe measures of queen Elizabeth (120) to induce the Catholics to acknowledge him supreme head of the church, and to force them to attend Protestant worship. And because they steadily refused, many citizens of Dublin were fined and imprisoned. The Catholics who refused to attend Protestant worship were called "Recusants." But still it was only in and around Dublin that any attempt could be made to coerce the Catholic people; and even there it did not succeed.

155. *Details of Plantation.*—Though the

two earls had committed no crime by flying from the country, yet their estates were confiscated, as well as those A.D. 1608 belonging to hundreds of others who had never offended against the government. The confiscated territory included nearly all the fertile land of six counties of Ulster:—Donegal, Derry, Tyrone, Armagh, Fermanagh, and Cavan; amounting to about three-quarters of a million English acres.

The “undertakers” or “planters” got each an estate of 2000, 1500, or 1000 acres. Those who got the 2000-acre lots were all English and Scotch, and were required to people their estates with English and Scotch Protestant tenants—no Irish. “Servitors”—*i.e.*, those who had served the crown in Ireland got the 1500-acre lots: they and their tenants were to be all Protestants. The 1000-acre lots might be taken by English, Scotch, or Irish planters, who might be either Protestants or Catholics.

Great territories were given to *London companies* of merchants or tradesmen: and some tracts were granted for religious and educational purposes—all Protestant.

156. *Fate of the Natives.*—One-ninth of the whole confiscated land was given to a

small number of natives—286: all the rest of the old owners were ordered to depart to any other part of Ireland where they could find a place to live in. But the greater number, instead of migrating, clung to their native district, and betook them to the sterile glens and mountain sides, with bitter memories in their hearts.

157. *The Plantation successful.* — This turned out by far the most successful of all the Plantations; and in a short time vast numbers of English Protestants and Scotch Presbyterians were settled on the rich lowland farms from which the natives had been expelled.

158. *Parliament.*—The lord deputy soon after this convened a Parliament in Dublin, having first taken measures to ensure a majority of Protestants. The Catholics complained bitterly of the unfair and illegal methods he took to carry this

A.D. 1613 point, and some of the abuses had to be rectified: but still the "recusants" were in a minority. It was this Parliament that extended English law to Ireland: and it also "attainted," without justification, the earls of Tyrone and Tirconnell, by which their property became forfeited.

(D778)

F

159. *More Plantations: "Discoverers."*—King James continued his plantations in other parts of the country; but instead of turning off the people openly as in Ulster, he adopted a more cunning plan: he sent persons to examine the *titles of estates*. These managed to find flaws, or pretended flaws, in almost all the titles they examined; on which the owners were either turned off, or had to pay the king large sums to be let remain. And the whole country swarmed with persons called "discoverers," who gave information of any titles that could be made out faulty; and who, in reward of their crooked proceedings, got either the estates or part of the money paid by the owners to buy themselves off.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE "GRACES."

160. *Purchase of "Graces": Evasion.*—In the midst of all the miserable inquietude caused by these dishonest proceedings king James died, and was succeeded by his son Charles I. This king was in perpetual straits for money; and the Irish agreed to

pay him large sums for certain concessions or " graces." There were altogether fifty-one graces, of which the two most important were, that landowners should

A.D. 1625 be secured in their estates (which affected Catholics and Protestants alike), and that Catholics should not be molested on account of their religion.

But the king, once he had the money; dishonestly withheld the graces, and the laws were put in force in Dublin against Catholics, who suffered bitterly for a time.

161. *Strafford*.—The king sent over as deputy lord Wentworth, after-

A.D. 1633 wards Earl of Strafford, the most despotic ruler that ever came to Ireland. He cared nothing about any man's religion; his two main objects were—to make the king absolute ruler in Ireland, and to get money for him.

162. *More Money: no Graces*.—He induced the parliament to grant immense sums for the graces; but he afterwards so managed the members, partly by bullying and partly by trickery, that the graces were never passed. He confiscated, by violence and dishonesty, nearly all Connaught and a large part of Munster, and made money for the king out of every transaction.

163. *Ruin of Wool Trade.*—He took steps to ruin the Irish wool trade for fear it might interfere with the wool trade of England, but he established the linen trade of Ulster, which could do no harm to England, and which has flourished ever since.

164. *End of Strafford.*—At last, having been created Earl of Strafford, A.D. 1640 he was recalled; and when the English house of commons impeached him, some of the bitterest of his accusers came from Ireland. He was beheaded in 1641.

CHAPTER IX.

THE REBELLION OF 1641.

165. *Causes.*—The rebellion of 1641 was brought about by the measures taken to suppress the Catholic religion, and by the Plantations, which had been carried so far that no man could tell where they might stop. Moreover those who had been expelled, and their children now grown up, only longed for the opportunity to fall on the settlers and regain their homes.

166. *Leaders and their Plans.*—The lead-

ing spirit of the movement was Roger or Rory O'Moore, a man of unblemished character; and among the other leaders was Sir Phelim O'Neill. They sent to the Continent for Owen Roe O'Neill, nephew of earl Hugh (138), a great general, who encouraged them to go on and gave them hopes of help from France.

The rising was to take place all through Ireland on the 23rd October: Dublin and many fortresses through the

A.D. 1641 country were to be seized: and the leaders ordered that there should be no bloodshed except in open fight.

167. *Rebellion begun.*—On the evening of the 22nd October secret information was given to the authorities; Dublin was instantly put in a state of defence; and some of the leaders were arrested, but Rory O'Moore escaped. The insurrection however broke out successfully in the north; and at the end of a week all Ulster was in the hands of the rebels. Sir Phelim O'Neill obtained command by showing a forged commission, which he pretended had been sent him from the king, and he was soon at the head of an undisciplined force of 30,000 men, armed with pikes, knives, pitchforks, scythes, and

all sorts of weapons they could lay hands on.

168. *Excesses and Cruelties.*—Sir Phelim was a bad general, and soon lost all control over his irregular army. During the first week the original intention of the leaders was carried out, and there was hardly any bloodshed. But those who had been expelled at the time of the Plantation broke at last through all restraint and attacked the settlers. They committed terrible cruelties, killing great numbers. Multitudes of poor people, old and young, were turned out almost naked, and in the endeavour to reach their friends perished by scores on the way.

Some of the excesses were carried out by orders of O'Neill himself; but the greatest number were the work of persons not acting under orders, but wreaking vengeance for their own private wrongs.

Numbers of the Protestants were protected by their pitying Catholic neighbours; and the priests, at the risk of their own lives, saved many.

169. *Coote's Cruelties.* — There were dreadful wholesale murders also on the other side, as for instance at Island Magee in Antrim; and Sir Charles Coote, issuing from

Dublin, committed horrible cruelties on peaceable innocent people in Wicklow.

The sanguinary proceedings of 1641—the unpremeditated outburst of cruel popular rage—remind us of what took place forty years before in the same province, when much larger numbers perished slowly of starvation by the carefully planned arrangements of Mountjoy (148).

CHAPTER X.

THE CONFEDERATION OF KILKENNY.

170. *Four Irish Parties.*—At the opening of 1642 there were in the distracted country four distinct parties, each with an army:—

171. *FIRST: The Old Irish.*—These were oppressed by plantations and by religious hardships, and they aimed at total separation from England. Their general was Owen Roe O'Neill who arrived in July, 1642, and having taken command, he superseded Sir Phelim O'Neill and punished those who had been guilty of cruelties.

172. *SECOND: The Old Anglo-Irish Catholics.*—These suffered for their religion

as much as the old Irish; and to some extent by the plantations. They wanted religious and civil liberty, but not separation from England. Their best general was colonel Preston, brother of Lord Gormanston.

These two parties represented the Catholics of Ireland. There was much jealousy and distrust between them; and this disunion ruined their cause.

173. THIRD: *The Puritans*, including the Presbyterians and Scots of Ulster, under general Monro. At this time king Charles I was getting deeper and deeper into trouble with the Parliament in England and of all the parliamentarians, his most determined and successful enemies were the covenanters of Scotland. Monro and his army worked in harmony with the covenanters; and as they were very hostile to the Catholic religion they were the special opponents of the old Irish party, with whom they constantly came into collision in Ulster.

174. FOURTH: *The Royalist Party* who held Dublin: these were chiefly Protestants who were opposed to the parliamentarians. They were the party of the king; and they wished to make it appear that the two Catholic parties were rebels against him.

175. *Catholics united*.—A great effort was

now made to bring the two branches of the Catholics to act in concert; and a general assembly or parliament of the most distinguished men of both sides—bishops, lords, and commons—met in Kilkenny. This is known as the “*Confederation of Kilkenny*”; and the united party are called “confederates.” They proclaimed themselves loyal subjects, standing up for the king, who, they said, would do them justice if the Puritans let him act freely: and they earnestly denied that they were rebels.

176. *Conduct of the War*.—For some time the two Catholic parties worked in union; and Owen Roe O’Neill with the old Irish carried on the war in Ulster against Monro, and Preston with the Anglo-Irish Catholics in Leinster against the royalists.

177. *The Double-dealing of Ormond and King Charles*.—The king appointed the earl of Ormond lord lieutenant, A.D. 1644 which placed him at the head of the royalist party in Dublin.

But Ormond was a double-dealer and secretly worked in the interest of the parliament. And he prevented peace between the king and the confederates, which Charles was very anxious for.

But king Charles himself was a worse double-dealer; for when he secretly tried to come to terms with the confederates, he openly denied to the parliamentarians that he did any such thing. He was in fact trying to deceive both parties.

178. *Rinuccini*.—With the object of more closely uniting the old Irish and old English to defend the Catholic religion and to sustain the king against the parliamentarians,

the Pope sent to the confederates, as nuncio Archbishop Baptist Rinuccini, who brought them a supply of money and arms.

179. *Battle of Benburb*.—But jealousies again broke out; and there was bitter rivalry between Preston and O'Neill. The Anglo-Irish party who had the majority in the Confederation, refused to support O'Neill, so that for a long time he was unable to to make head against Monro in the north.

At length by a great effort he collected an army of 5500, and inflicted a crushing defeat on Monro and his more

A.D. 1646 numerous army at Benburb on the Blackwater: an exploit quite as brilliant as that of his uncle Hugh at the Yellow Ford (143).

180. *Peace between Royalists and Con-*

federates.—In 1647 Ormond delivered up Dublin to the parliamentarians and went to France; after which the confederates met with several reverses in battle. He soon after returned, and made final

A.D. 1649 peace with the confederates, on the main condition that the laws against Catholics should be repealed. About a fortnight afterwards king Charles was beheaded. In the same year, the nuncio finding his mission a failure, returned to Rome.

181. *Battle of Rathmines*.—The royalist cause was now favoured, as against the English parliamentarians, by nearly all parties in Ireland, including Ormond, the confederates, and the Scots of Ulster; and they proclaimed the Prince of Wales king, as Charles II. But they met

A.D. 1649 with a great disaster; for colonel Jones, who held Dublin for the parliamentarians, defeated Ormond in a great battle at Rathmines, which ruined the royalist cause.

CHAPTER XI.

CROMWELL.

182. *At Drogheda.*—After the execution of the king, the triumphant English parliament sent Oliver Cromwell as lord lieutenant to Ireland, with an army of 13,000 men. His first exploit was the storming
A.D. 1649 of Drogheda, where he massacred the whole garrison and a great number of the townspeople.

183.—*At Wexford.*—He next—in the same year—took Wexford, where there was another terrible massacre of garrison and people.

184. *Cromwell's Departure.*—This produced such terror that, as he traversed the country, most of the towns were given up: and where there was resistance he usually executed the garrison. After
A.D. 1650 a short campaign, seeing the country almost subdued, he returned to England, leaving his son-in-law Ireton to finish the war.

185. *Siege of Limerick: End of the War.*—Ireton besieged Limerick, which was defended by Hugh O'Neill, Owen Roe's

nephew—for Owen himself was at this time dead. But after a brave de-

A.D. 1651 fence, the city, betrayed by colonel Fennel, was taken; and the garrison having laid down their arms, were permitted to march away. Galway soon after surrendered, which ended the war; and Ireland was now completely in the hands of Cromwell and the parliament.

186. *Miseries of the People.*—During all this time there was pestilence, which continued after the war had ended; famine came to help in the work of destruction; and for two or three years the country was desolated by these two scourges.

187. *Cromwellian Plantation.*—And now came the worst and cruellest A.D. 1652 plantation of all. The parliament, directed by Cromwell, ordered that the whole Irish population of Ulster, Leinster, and Munster, except workmen and small farmers, should transplant themselves across the Shannon into Connaught and Clare. Any found remaining after a certain date might be killed by whoever met them. In this terrible migration hundreds of women, children, and feeble persons, perished of hardship and want. The lands thus left vacant Cromwell gave

to his soldiers, who were now settled in possession all over the country.

188. *The "Tories."*—But great numbers of young men, instead of migrating, formed themselves into bands, and plundered and killed the settlers at every opportunity; and in their turn they were killed whenever found. These bands were called *tories*.

189. *Shipped for Slaves.*—The widows and orphans of those who had perished in the war, and numbers of men also, were seized and sent off in shiploads to the West Indian islands to be slaves.

CHAPTER XII.

THE REIGN OF CHARLES II.

190. *Restoration.*—After Cromwell's death and the restoration of Charles II (in 1660) a good deal of the land that had been taken from the Catholics was given back to them. But vast numbers were never reinstated; and King Charles turned out most ungrateful to those who had helped him in his time of need. The end of all was that about half the land the Catholics had held before this

plantation, remained in the hands of the Cromwellians.

191. *Census of Religions.*—At the time of the Restoration the population of Ireland was about 1,100,000, of whom 800,000 were Roman Catholics, including the old English, who were nearly all Catholics; 200,000 were non-conformist Protestants (including Presbyterians); and 100,000 were Protestants of the Established Church. Nearly all the Cromwellians were Puritans. Both sections of Protestants were alike hostile to the Catholics.

192. *Sufferings under Penal Laws.*—During Cromwell's time the laws against Catholics were put in force with terrible severity by the Puritans; but the Catholics, though they suffered, held their ground successfully. After the restoration when the Protestant church was restored, the Presbyterians were bitterly persecuted for a short time by the authorities; but they also steadfastly and successfully resisted. Again the evil turn of the Catholics came, and they passed through a time of great suffering; and their state became ten times worse after the Titus Oates plot in England (1678) when they were suspected of everything bad.

CHAPTER XIII.

THE WAR OF THE REVOLUTION.

193. *Attempted Restoration of Catholicity.*
 —James II, who succeeded in 1685, was a Catholic; and soon entered on the dangerous task of restoring the Catholic religion both in England and Ireland. He appointed as lord lieutenant the earl of A.D. 1687 Tirconnel, a strict Roman Catholic, which created a great panic among the Protestants.

194. *William arrives: James flies.*—In the midst of the alarm, William prince of Orange landed in England A.D. 1688 with an army to claim the throne; and at the first appearance of danger King James fled to France. Nearly all the people of England were Protestants, and they were determined to have a Protestant king, so they allowed William to take possession without opposition. In Ireland the vast majority of the people were Catholics (191), who did not want a Protestant king. They stood up for King James; and so William had to fight for Ireland.

195. *James returns*.—James, encouraged by the attitude of the Irish, landed at Kinsale with 100 French officers, and 1200 Irish refugees from France. Among the Irish officers the most distinguished was Patrick Sarsfield, afterwards created earl of Lucan by king James.

196. *Tirconnell's Measures*.—Tirconnell, as soon as William had landed in England, at once proceeded to take possession of the important towns for king James. but the Protestant inhabitants of Enniskillen and Derry refused to let his soldiers in.

197. *Siege of Derry*.—The gates of Derry were shut against the Jacobites (*i.e.*, the followers of king James) by a few of the young apprentices of the town;

A.D. 1689 and then—18th of April—commenced a siege, one of the most noted in Irish or British history.

The Jacobite army surrounded the town, except where the river Foyle flowed through; and they made many attempts to storm; but they were always foiled by the desperate resistance of the garrison. Even the women often joined courageously in the struggle. Then the besiegers sat down to starve the place; and the townspeople soon began to suffer dreadfully from hunger; for a great

boom was stretched across the river below the town to prevent ships coming in with provisions; and the people were driven to eat horses, rats, grease, and all sorts of garbage. Yet the brave garrison—ragged and starving—stood resolutely to their posts and never uttered any complaint. At length three ships laden with provisions, coming up the river full sail, crashed through the boom and relieved the town. So ended (31st July) this memorable siege of 105 days.

198. *Battle of the Boyne*.—The siege of Derry was only the beginning of the struggle. The duke of Schomberg sent by

king William, landed with an

A.D. 1689 army of 15,000 men, and

William himself followed soon

after. James's army—about 26,000—was posted on the south bank of the Boyne; and

here he was attacked by

A.D. 1690 William with an army of about

40,000, and defeated after a

whole day's fighting. The valiant old Schomberg was shot dead while attempting to cross the river. King James fled from the field before the battle was over, and sailed to France. After the battle, late in the evening, the Irish army retreated south in good order. They had maintained the

struggle bravely under great disadvantages: they were the fewer in number; they were badly armed: and above all they had at their head a spiritless king of no ability; while the English were led by William, one of the best generals of the age. "Change kings with us," exclaimed Sarsfield after the battle, "and we will fight you over again."

199. *Siege of Limerick*.—The Irish now took the Shannon as their line of defence. The Williamite army was repulsed in an attempt to take Athlone; and then king William himself marched to A.D. 1690 Limerick, which was defended by Sarsfield with a badly equipped army. And now began another famous siege.

200. *Sarsfield and the Siege Train*.—William had not enough of artillery; but a great siege train of many cannons and plenty of ammunition was on its way from Dublin. Sarsfield hearing of this, set out secretly by night with 500 picked horsemen to intercept it; and taking a roundabout, came on the convoy the next night while all were asleep. Dashing in among them, he overpowered them in a few moments: and filling the cannons with powder he blew up the whole

train; after which he made his way back to Limerick.

201. *Desperate Resistance: Siege raised.*—King William having procured another supply, made a great breach in the wall with his cannon, through which rushed a storming party followed by 10,000 men. But they were resisted with great bravery; and for hours the dreadful struggle went on. At one time when the Irish soldiers showed signs of yielding, the townspeople, who had been looking on, seizing every weapon they could find, rushed through smoke, dust, and blood, to aid their friends, and among them were crowds of women, who flung bottles and all sorts of missiles in the very faces of the assailants.

Suddenly in the midst of the horrible confusion, the Black Battery exploded, and blew up a whole Williamite regiment. The defenders now fought still more furiously till the assailants could stand it no longer; and turning round they rushed out head-long through the breach. William himself was witness of this valiant defence, and seeing his best men repulsed by the half-armed soldiers and citizens, he raised the siege which had lasted three weeks, and with a sorrowful heart marched away. He soon

after returned to England leaving general De Ginkel in command.

202. *Siege of Athlone*.—General St. Ruth came over from France and took command of the Irish army. De Ginkel attacked Athlone; and after having been foiled, in his attempt to cross the bridge,

A.D. 1691 by the desperate valour of the Irish, he took the town by unexpectedly fording the Shannon, and so coming round to the rear.

203. *Battle of Aughrim*.—St. Ruth now fell back on the village of Aughrim in Galway, where he was attacked by Ginkel.

At first the Irish had the best A.D. 1691 of the fight; but towards evening St. Ruth was killed by a cannon ball, which lost them the day.

204. *Last Siege of Limerick*.—The last action of the war was the siege of Limerick—the third siege sustained

A.D. 1691 by this old city within forty years (1685, 1699). Ginkel's fierce attacks were resisted with great obstinacy by Sarsfield. At length both parties were anxious for an arrangement. Ginkel feared the coming rainy season for his army, and Sarsfield saw no hope in further unaided resistance. A treaty of

peace was signed, and soon after confirmed by king William. This ended the War of Revolution; and William and Mary were acknowledged sovereigns of Ireland.

205. *Treaty of Limerick*.—By the treaty of Limerick the Irish Catholics were to be allowed the same liberty of worship as they had under Charles II, and they were not to be required to take the Oath of Supremacy (120). The Irish soldiers were to be permitted to go to any foreign country they pleased, getting free passage in English ships. More than 20,000 went with Sarsfield and entered the French service, forming the beginning of the celebrated *Irish Brigade*.

206. *Fate of the Treaty*.—But the most important part of the treaty—that which gave the Catholics religious liberty—was soon after broken, not by king William, who was kindly disposed towards the Irish, and would have stood to that solemn treaty, but by the Irish and English parliaments.

There was now another confiscation, the third within a century (155, 187), after which only about a *seventh* of the land of Ireland remained with the Catholics.

PART V.

THE PERIOD OF THE PENAL LAWS. (1695—1829.)

THIS period is specially distinguished as the Period of the Penal Laws; because for nearly a century after 1695 there was a continued succession of crushing enactments against Catholics.

As Catholics had saved many of the settlers from destruction in 1641, so, during this fearful century, numberless instances are recorded where Catholics were protected from the laws, by the pitying kindness of their Protestant neighbours.

Towards the close of the eighteenth century the penal code was gradually repealed; and, except in a few particulars, the *Emanicipation Act of 1829* put an end to the penal enactments against Catholics.

CHAPTER I.

THE PENAL LAWS AND THE LAWS MADE TO DESTROY IRISH TRADE.

207. *The Penal Code.*—The small Protestant population of Ireland had now the

entire government of the country in their hands. The Irish parliament, greatly against the will of the king, refused to carry out the Treaty of Limerick: and a number of laws against Irish Catholics were passed from time to time, chiefly by the Irish parliament, but partly by the English. The following are the most important of these laws.

208. *Religion.* — The existing Catholic parish priests were not to be disturbed: but all had to be registered, and should give security for good behaviour. All other Catholic clergy—bishops, Jesuits, friars, monks, etc.—were ordered to quit the kingdom. For those who quitted and returned—death. No Catholic chapel to have steeple or bell.

209. *Education.*—No Catholic was to teach school or teach in private houses: no Catholic to send his child abroad to be educated. This deprived Catholics of education altogether, so far as the law-makers could go.

210. *Social Position.*—Every member of parliament, lawyer, doctor, or holder of any government situation, had to take an oath that the Catholic religion was false—*i.e.*,

abjuring and rejecting the Catholic religion—which would of course exclude Catholics from all these positions.

211. *Arms: Property: Franchise.*—No Catholic to keep arms, or keep a horse worth more than £5. If a Catholic had a valuable horse, any Protestant might take possession of it by tendering £5.

If the eldest son of a Roman Catholic conformed he was to get his father's property.

No Catholic could purchase land or could take a lease for longer than 31 years.

No person could vote at an election without taking the oath abjuring the Catholic religion, and receiving the sacrament on Sunday according to the Protestant rite. Later on an act was passed directly disfranchising all Roman Catholics—depriving them of votes of every kind.

The act requiring the reception of the sacrament according to the Protestant rite was called the *Test Act*.

212. *Persecution of Presbyterians.*—For some time the Presbyterians were bitterly persecuted, chiefly under the Test Act; for they did not wish to receive the sacrament according to the English rite, and refused to the last to do so. But their sufferings

though sharp for the time, were small and brief compared with those of the Catholics.

213. *Trade and Manufacture destroyed.*—Laws were also made, mostly by the English parliament, but sometimes by the Irish, to destroy the trade, manufactures, and commerce of Ireland, lest Irish prosperity might injure the manufactures of England. This legislation, while it injured all the people of Ireland, was worse on the Protestants than on the Catholics; for at this time Catholics were so much kept down by the laws, that the Protestants had almost the entire industry and trade of the country in their hands.

214. *Exports forbidden.*—All exports from Ireland to the colonies were forbidden, as was also the export of Irish cattle to England.

215. *Wool Trade ruined.*—The Irish wool trade had lately begun to flourish, notwithstanding the action of Strafford (163); but this was ruined also, by a law requiring the Irish to pay an impossible duty on all wool and all manufactured woollen articles exported.

216. *Smuggling.*—After this smuggling increased enormously, and thousands of smugglers succeeded in bringing away cargoes of wool to France and elsewhere

without paying any duty. And they smuggled back shiploads of wine, brandy, and silk. This smuggling continued for many years, and people of all classes were engaged in it.

217. *General Ruin of Manufactures.*—At last almost all branches of Irish manufacture—beer, malt, hats, cotton, silk, gunpowder, ironware, etc.—were destroyed by legislation.

218. *The Results.*—This legislation produced great poverty and distress everywhere in Ireland: and thousands of Ulster Presbyterians emigrated, then and subsequently, to New England, where they and their descendants became the bitterest enemies of England.

Moreover, Irish trade never recovered; and the consequences are felt to this day: for Ireland has now comparatively little manufacture and commerce.

CHAPTER II.

COMPLETE SUBJECTION OF THE IRISH PARLIAMENT.

219. *Parliament purely Protestant.*—The proceedings of the Irish parliament during

the eighteenth century have reference solely to the Protestant people. The struggles of the Irish legislature for independence, culminating in Grattan's parliament of 1782 (240), were the struggles of the Protestants. The Catholics had no power to take part in these contests: for no Catholic could be a member of parliament, or even vote at an election for one (211).

220. *Scope of Poynings' Law.*—Poynings' law (99) still continued in force, so that the Irish parliament could make no laws—could not even meet—without the consent of the English king and council. But Poynings' law did not give the English parliament the power to make laws for Ireland.

221. "*The Sixth of George I.*"—At last however an act—known as "*The Sixth of George I*"—was passed in
 1719 England, giving to the English parliament, for the first time, the power of legislating for Ireland.

CHAPTER III.

STRUGGLES FOR LEGISLATIVE INDEPENDENCE.

222. *Struggle commenced.*—By means of the Sixth of George I and Poynings' law.

the English parliament kept down that of Ireland. This produced great discontent among the Irish people—members of parliament and others. They saw the trade of their country ruined by the English legislature; and they resolved to make a struggle for the independence of their own parliament, so as to confer on it the sole right of making laws for Ireland. But it was a long and a bitter struggle.

223. *William Molyneux*.—Great Irishmen arose from time to time, who advocated, by speech and writing, Irish legislative independence and the revival of Irish manufactures, and encouraged their countrymen to persevere. In 1698 William Molyneux, a member of Parliament for the University of Dublin, wrote a book with this object: which caused such rage in England that the government there ordered it to be burned publicly by the hangman.

224. *Jonathan Swift*.—One of the greatest of all these men was Jonathan Swift. He was appointed dean of St. Patrick's in Dublin in 1713; and from that time forward he wrote a number of letters and pamphlets that were read eagerly by all classes, and created the greatest excitement. The government would have been glad to prosecute

him; but though every one knew who the writer was, no one gave information, and they had to let him alone.

225. *Penal Laws doomed.*—Many fair-minded Protestants now also began to see the injustice of the penal laws against Catholics, and of those of them that bore on the Presbyterians, and were determined to press for their repeal.

226. *The Patriots.*—There was all along a small opposition party in the Irish house of commons—the Patriots or patriotic or popular party, as they came to be called—who advocated these principles. But the government had an overwhelming majority and resisted all reform, though the patriots, who always had a few men of great ability, gave much trouble. As time went on the patriots gained strength, and ultimately, as we shall see, carried their point against the government.

227. *Charles Lucas and Anthony Malone.*—About the year 1750 the popular party had for leaders two very able men, Charles Lucas, a Dublin apothecary, not then in parliament (though he was subsequently elected), and counsellor Anthony Malone, a member of the house: and their leader in

the lords was the earl of Kildare, afterwards duke of Leinster.

228. *Dispute about Surplus.*—The king claimed that no surplus of money derived from taxation in Ireland should be applied to any purpose without his consent: but through the efforts of the patriots the commons passed a bill, in spite of the opposition of the court party, disposing of a surplus without any reference to the king. The patriots had been long steadily gaining ground, and both parties were at this time nearly balanced.

229. *The Catholic Committee.*—There was now an increasing tendency towards toleration. Even the Catholics began to bestir themselves to obtain relief, and the "Catholic Committee" was founded to watch over their interests: it held its meetings in Dublin. It did not at first effect much: but it was the beginning of those efforts that ultimately brought about Catholic Emancipation.

230. *Secret Societies.*—The misery caused by the destruction of Irish trade gave rise to various oath-bound secret societies. The "Whiteboys," among whom were men of different religions, took their rise in 1761; they spread through Waterford, Cork,

Limerick, and Tipperary, and they exerted themselves chiefly against the encroachments and oppressions of the landlords. They sometimes committed terrible outrages.

Among the Ulster Protestants arose the "*Hearts of Oak*," and the "*Steel Boys*" to put down unjust and intolerable rents; and they were often quite as merciless as the Whiteboys.

231. *A small Relief to Catholics*.—During this time the Catholics, though they had their Committee, were absolutely silent, taking no part in public questions; their chief care being to avoid the sharp fangs of the law. Nevertheless a little indulgence began to be shown towards them; and
1771 an act was passed to enable a Catholic to lease and reclaim 50 acres of bog: but it should be at least a mile from a town.

232. *Activity of the Patriots*.—All this time the patriots were energetic and sleepless in their opposition, and gave great torment to the government by their newspaper articles, their pamphlets, and their action in parliament. The viceroys and the government did their best to silence their opposition by bribes, in the form of pensions, situations, and titles; but though they succeeded in

buying off some, the main body remained firm and solid in their opposition.

233. *Three great Irishmen.*—In the latter half of the century, three great men belonging to the party of reform and progress began to take a leading part in public affairs:—Edmund Burke, born in Dublin, 1730; Henry Flood, born near Kilkenny, 1732; and Henry Grattan, born in Dublin, 1746. Burke figured chiefly in the English parliament; the two others in the Irish parliament. Burke and Grattan advocated Catholic emancipation: Flood did not; but he was for all other reforms.

CHAPTER IV.

THE VOLUNTEERS.

234. *The American War: Embargo.*—The American war broke out in 1775; and in order to cheapen provisions for the British army the government put an embargo on the export of provisions from
1776 Irish ports. This measure ruined thousands of all religious persuasions, and produced great distress, as the people were unable to sell the produce of their land.

(D778)

H

235. *Influence of American War.*—The war went steadily against the English, and during this time some of the worst of the penal laws were repealed. Catholics were allowed to lease land for 999
1778 years, and the Test Act (211) was repealed, which was a relief to Presbyterians as well as to Catholics. The embargo was also, after some time, removed.

236. *Origin of the Volunteers.*—While the war was going on, Ireland was quite unprotected against foreign invasion, for the government had no soldiers to spare for its defence. So the people, in self-defence, raised among themselves an
1779 army of volunteers, which ultimately numbered 100,000 men, with lord Charlemont at their head. The government did not like this move, for they saw it would make the Irish party of progress dangerously powerful; but they could not prevent it.

The movement was among Protestants exclusively, for the Catholics were still too much kept down to take any part in it; but as time went on a good many Catholics were admitted to the ranks, and a few among the leaders.

237. *Free Trade*.—The patriotic party, led by Grattan, having now the volunteers at their back, assumed a bolder tone, and demanded “Free Trade”—*i.e.*, that the laws against Irish commerce and manufactures should be repealed, so as to give the country some chance of prospering. And in great measure they succeeded. It was chiefly the English parliament that had passed these laws; and now the same parliament repealed some of the worst of them: especially that against the export of wool and woollen goods

CHAPTER V.

LEGISLATIVE INDEPENDENCE

238. *Agitation*.—The ideas of the popular party grew with their success; and they now resolved that their parliament, which was bound down by Poynings’ law and by the Sixth of George I, should be free. The agitation for this, which began in Dublin, extended all over the country. But still the government, by bestowing pensions, titles, and other such inducements, were able to keep up their majority, and to resist reform.

239. *The Dungannon Convention*. — At

last the volunteers, led by lord Charlemont, Grattan, and Flood, took the matter in hands. They held a great meeting of Volunteer delegates in Dungan-
 1782 gannon; where they drew up a declaration in the form of resolutions, that the "King, lords, and commons of Ireland" had alone the right to make laws for the country; and that Ireland should have Free Trade. They also expressed themselves rejoiced at the partial relaxation of the penal laws against their Catholic fellow-countrymen (235).

240. "*Act of Repeal*"; "*Act of Renunciation*."—At the next meeting of the Irish parliament these resolutions were proposed by Grattan and carried in spite of government opposition. The next part of the proceedings was in the English
 1782 parliament, where the "Sixth of George I" was repealed
 (221).

This "Act of Repeal," as it was called, which gave the Irish parliament the exclusive right to legislate for Ireland, caused great rejoicing. The English parliament subsequently passed the "*Act of Renunciation*," which declared that that right should never more be called in question.

CHAPTER VI.

CONTINUANCE OF DISCONTENT.

241. *Reform needed.*—But now this Irish parliament, which had been made independent, sorely needed reform within itself. Of the 300 members of the house of commons only 72 were really returned by the free votes of the people. All the rest were in the hands of a few lords and rich men who were owners of the boroughs; so that any man might get to be a member of parliament by paying a sum of money to the owner of some borough, who then ordered the people to elect him. This was a bad state of things; but it was hard to remedy it; for the sale of seats was a very money-making business for these borough owners—the very persons who in a great measure had in their hands the power of having laws made. Sometimes £11,000 was paid for a single seat.

242. *Efforts at Reform.*—The popular party took up the question of Reform: but the government, who still had a majority, successfully resisted all their efforts. The party also lost strength by the gradual break up of the volunteers. There still remained heavy duties on Irish trade, which they

endeavoured to have removed: but in this also they failed.

243. *More Secret Societies.*—The people were at this time fearfully distressed and discontented; the Catholics on account of the penal laws; and all, both Catholics and Protestants, on account of the restrictions still remaining on trade; and the farmers were ground down by rackrents. There were, in consequence, secret societies everywhere which did immense damage, and the members often committed fearful cruelties. In the south there were "*Rightboys*" who were much the same as the Whiteboys. In the North there were "*Peep-o'-day boys*" among the Protestants, and "*Defenders*" among the Catholics: and these often fought and maimed and killed each other.

244. *An Insurrection Act.*—Grattan wished to have an inquiry into the causes of this miserable state of things with a view to remedy: but the government refused; and passed—much against the will
1787 of Grattan and his party—a severe insurrection bill to put down secret societies.

245. *The Regency dispute.*—A circumstance occurred at this time in England which had much influence on the ultimate fate of

the Irish parliament. In the autumn of 1788 George III had an attack of insanity, and in England the prince of Wales was made regent—*i.e.*, he was appointed to take the king's place during his illness: but the English parliament took care that the prince, during his regency, should have less power and privileges than the king had. The Irish parliament, by a large majority, but much against the wish of the Irish government, offered the regency of Ireland to the prince of Wales without limitation—he was to be in all respects, except in name, king for the time being. The lord lieutenant (the Marquis of Buckingham, who had been appointed in 1787) refused to forward the Irish address; on which parliament appointed a deputation to go over to England and make the offer personally to the prince. But the king's recovery in February ended the dispute. This disagreement was subsequently used as an argument by Pitt in favour of the union, on the ground that at some future time the two kingdoms might choose two different regents, which would lead to very serious complications.

1789 246. *Wolfe Tone and the United Irishmen.*
—The French Revolution, which was going

on about this time, stirred people's minds greatly in Ireland; and clubs and committees were formed by the leading men, to advocate reform. Theobald Wolfe Tone, a Protestant Dublin barrister, founded in 1791 Belfast the Society of United Irishmen; and afterwards formed a branch in Dublin, having James Napper Tandy, a Protestant shopkeeper of the city, as its secretary. In the beginning the objects of this society were quite lawful, the chief of them being to break down the corrupting influence of the government, and to remove the grievances of all religious persuasions: this last mainly aiming at the repeal of the Penal Laws against Catholics.

247. *An instalment of Emancipation.*—The main thing that the Catholic Committee (229) kept in view was to obtain a relaxation or repeal of the Penal Laws. In 1792 they held a great meeting in Back Lane in Dublin, from which they sent a petition to the king, who received it favourably. The result was that the Catholics obtained from the Irish parliament some further relief. The

1793 franchise (211) was restored to them, so that they could vote for members of Parliament; and almost all situations were open to them. But as yet a

Catholic could not be a member of parliament.

248. For circulating violent addresses three leading United Irishmen—the Hon. Simon Butler, Oliver Bond, and Archibald Hamilton Rowan—were heavily fined and imprisoned; but Rowan, finding his life in danger, escaped from prison and fled to America. At this time the Rev. William Jackson, a Protestant clergyman of Irish extraction, arrived in Ireland from France to make arrangements for a French

1794 invasion. He was arrested, tried, and condemned to be hanged for treason: but he managed to take a dose of poison, and dropped dead in the dock. The chief person giving information about the United Irishmen at this period was Leonard MacNally, a Dublin attorney, who pretended to be their greatest friend and obtained all their secrets: but he was all the time a spy in the pay of the government.

249. *Disappointed hopes.*—The English government, led by William Pitt, now resolved to completely emancipate the Catholics; and there was great joy
1795 when earl Fitzwilliam, a just and liberal man, was sent over as lord lieutenant to carry out the measure.

But some parties in Ireland—chiefly Lord Chancellor Fitzgibbon, with Beresford and Cooke, two high officials whom Fitzwilliam had removed and pensioned off from their posts in Dublin—raised an outcry against it: and at the last moment the king, persuaded by them, refused his consent. without which no act could be passed. Earl Fitzwilliam was recalled; and the whole scheme fell to the ground. This bitter disappointment caused intense sorrow and indignation all through Ireland, not only among the Catholics but also among the Protestants; and it was answerable for the tremendous evils that followed.

CHAPTER VII.

THE REBELLION OF 1798.

250. The people were now exasperated and desperate, and came to the fatal determination to attempt revolution. The United Irishmen—who were nearly all Protestants—banded themselves as a secret
1795 oathbound—and of course illegal—society. They were joined by Lord Edward Fitzgerald (brother

of the duke of Leinster), by Thomas Addis Emmet (brother of Robert Emmet), by Arthur O'Connor, and by Dr. William T. MacNevin of Dublin; and among the leaders were a few Catholics. The United Irishmen ultimately numbered 500,000. But there were spies within their body who revealed all their secrets to the government.

251. *Hoche's Expedition*.—Tone had to leave the country: and he induced the French government to send a force
1796 under general Hoche to invade Ireland. But the fleet was dispersed by storms; and the few ships that reached the coast of Ireland at Bantry bay had to return, as the wild weather continued.

252. The government now took vigorous measures. General Lake proclaimed martial law (which placed the country in the hands of the military); many leaders were arrested; and bands of military, militia, and yeomanry were sent all over the country, and committed dreadful cruelties, so as to drive thousands of peaceable people into desperation and rebellion.

253. Grattan endeavoured to have the grievances of the people removed by parliament, which he believed would terminate the disturbances; but all in vain; and seeing

his efforts fruitless, he and his party retired from parliament altogether.

254. *De Winter's Expedition.*—There was another attempt at invasion—this time by a Dutch fleet commanded by 1797 admiral De Winter—which was delayed by ill weather, and finally defeated at Camperdown by admiral Duncan.

255. The 23rd of May had been fixed on for the rising; but before that day 1798 came, the government—who knew all that was going on through Leonard MacNally, Thomas Reynolds, and others—made a sudden swoop and arrested many of the leaders, among them Lord Edward Fitzgerald, Oliver Bond, Thomas Addis Emmet; Dr. MacNevin, Arthur O'Connor, and others. Lord Edward resisted desperately, and received a wound of which he died.

256. *Battle of Tara.*—The rising took place however in May, but it was only partial—almost confined to the counties of Kildare, Wicklow, and Wexford. On the 26th May a body of 4,000 rebels were defeated at Tara.

257. *Goaded to Rebellion.*—The people of Wexford, where the rebellion was worst,

were peaceable and industrious; and they were driven to rebellion by the terrible barbarities of the militia. They rose in desperation without any plan or any idea of what they were to do, and in their vengeful fury they committed many cruel excesses on the Protestant loyalist inhabitants, in blind retaliation for the far worse excesses of the militia.

258. *Battle of Oulart*.—Father John Murphy, whose little chapel had been burned by the yeomen, took the lead for a while; and he and his men defeated and annihilated a party of the North Cork militia at Oulart Hill, near Enniscorthy.

Soon afterwards they took Enniscorthy, Gorey, and Wexford: and now they made Bagenal Harvey — a Protestant Wexford gentleman—their leader; and they fixed their chief encampment on Vinegar Hill, rising over Enniscorthy.

259. *Tubberneering and Scullabogue*.—The rebels defeated the government forces at Tubberneering near Gorey; then they took Newtownbarry and New Ross (where Lord Mountjoy was killed); but through their own irregularity and want of discipline, they were immediately after driven out from both places by the military. A scattered party of

rebels, flying from New Ross, not acting under orders, seized a number of loyalist prisoners at a place called Scullabogue, near New Ross, and having murdered 37 of them, burned to death all the rest—more than a hundred—by setting fire to a barn where they were shut up.

260. *Arklow and Vinegar Hill.*—The rebels next attempted to march on Dublin, but were intercepted and driven back at Arklow by general Needham.

The encampment on Vinegar Hill was attacked by general Lake with 20,000 men, and after a hard fight the rebels gave way and fled. After this they lost heart, they abandoned Wexford town, and the Wexford rebellion was as good as ended. Many of the leaders were arrested and hanged; among them Bagenal Harvey, Mr. Grogan of Johnstown, and Father John Murphy.

261. The whole country was now at the mercy of the yeomanry and militia, who perpetrated murders and other dreadful atrocities among the peasantry: in revenge for which, straggling bands of rebels, free of all restraint, committed many frightful outrages.

262. *The Ulster Rebellion.*—The northern rebellion was delayed, but broke out: and

here the rebels were nearly all Protestants. It was put down after several battles; and the two chief leaders, Henry Joy M'Cracken and Henry Monro, were taken and hanged.

When Lord Cornwallis—a just and humane man—was appointed lord lieutenant (in June), the first thing he did was to try to stop the frightful cruelties now committed by soldiers and militia all over the country, but in spite of all he could do they continued for several months.

263. After the rebellion had been crushed a small French force under general Humbert landed at Killala in Mayo; but they were soon forced to surrender and were sent back to France.

264. *Death of Tone.*—In September—still in 'Ninety-eight—another small French expedition, having Wolfe Tone on board, sailed for Ireland. But they were defeated in Lough Swilly; and Tone was taken and sent to Dublin. He was tried and sentenced to be hanged; but on the morning fixed for the execution he cut his throat with a pen-knife and died a few hours afterwards.

The great counsellor John Philpot Curran defended Tone and many others of the United Irishmen, in speeches of wonderful eloquence and power.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE UNION.

265. *Proposal for Union.*—The great English prime minister, William Pitt, believed that the proper time had now come for a legislative union between England and Ireland. At the opening of 1799 the marquis of Cornwallis was lord lieutenant, and Lord Castlereagh was chief secretary. The proposal when hinted at in the Irish parliament was received with great indignation by the majority of the members.

266. *Means by which the Union was carried.*—It was however approved by the English parliament. But it was necessary that the Irish parliament should consent to it; and bribes in the shape of titles, pensions, situations, direct cash, etc., beyond anything ever known in the country before, were given by the government to the members to induce them to vote for it.

In case of union the 300 Irish members would be cut down to 100 members for the British parliament, so that a number of the boroughs would have to be disfranchised. In order to buy off the opposition of the owners of boroughs who had been making

so much money by selling seats (241), they received large sums—about £15,000 for each seat. The whole amount given in this way was £1,260,000, which Ireland itself had to pay.

267. *The Act of Union*.—By these means a majority was secured for the bill, which was passed, in spite of the earnest 1800 opposition of a minority of 115, who could not be bought over, and who stood firm to the last.

The new order of things came into operation on the 1st of January, 1801; from which date there was no longer an Irish parliament; and the two countries, which had hitherto formed distinct kingdoms, were now the “United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.”

268. Robert Emmet, an earnest high-minded young man of twenty-four, attempted to revive the Society of United Irishmen. He projected an insurrection in Dublin, intending to capture the castle. The rising took place, but only on a small scale, during which a few persons were 1803 murdered, without Emmet’s knowledge, by some ruffianly stragglers. It was easily quelled; and Emmet was soon after taken, tried, and hanged in Dublin.

CHAPTER IX.

CATHOLIC EMANCIPATION.

269. Promise of immediate Emancipation.

—In order to lessen the hostility of the Irish Catholics to the Union, they were promised that Emancipation would immediately follow. But the promise was not kept, for Emancipation was held back for twenty-nine years, chiefly through the obstinacy of the king (249).

270. The Veto.—In 1805 Grattan became a member of the United Parliament, and devoted himself almost exclusively to the cause of Irish Catholic Emancipation. In 1808 a petition for Catholic relief was brought to London by the Catholic lord Fingall and Dr. Milner. It was presented to Parliament by Grattan and some others, who, on the authority of lord Fingall and Dr. Milner, offered what was called the “Veto.” This meant that the king should have the power to reject any bishop elected by the Irish Catholic ecclesiastical authorities, in which case someone else should be elected. But the general body of the Irish clergy and

people were against the Veto: and it was never carried out. Even with the offer of the Veto the petition was refused.

271. *Daniel O'Connell*.—About this time Daniel O'Connell, afterwards known as "The Liberator," began to come prominently into notice. He was the chief figure in Irish political history for nearly half a century, and was one of the greatest popular leaders the world ever saw. He entered on the task of emancipating himself and his fellow-Catholics, and ultimately succeeded. He was ably seconded by another Catholic leader Richard Lalor Sheil.

272. In 1812 Robert Peel became chief secretary for Ireland. The country at this time was in great distress: there were secret societies, and outrages were frequent.

The public mind, both in England and Ireland, became gradually impressed with the justice and expediency of emancipation, partly by the gigantic labours of O'Connell, and to some extent by the writings of Thomas Moore (11).

273. *Death of Grattan*.—Grattan, sinking under disease, made one last noble effort for his Catholic fellow-countrymen. He set out for the English house of commons to

plead their cause there once more, but never reached it. He died in London, 1820 speaking of the cause of Ireland, and of the Irish Catholics, with his latest breath.

274. O'Connell and Sheil founded the "Catholic Association" which soon had branches all through Ireland; it was 1823 the chief agency by which Emancipation was ultimately achieved.

275. *The Clare Election.*—At this time no Catholic could sit in parliament: for every member, before admittance, had to take an oath that no Catholic could take. O'Connell determined to have himself elected for some constituency, and to present himself for admission to the house of commons and be rejected, so as to bring home to all fair-minded people in England the injustice done to Catholics. A vacancy occurred in 1828 Clare, and after an exciting contest he was returned. This election aroused sympathy all over England for the Catholics.

276. *Emancipation carried.*—The government became alarmed, and still more so when they found that the Catholic Association were preparing to return Catholics all through Ireland. The duke of Wellington

prime minster, and Sir Robert Peel home secretary, gave way: a bill for the emancipation of the Catholics was introduced and, after great opposition, 1829 became law on the 13th April. By this Emancipation Act a new oath was framed which Catholics could take. The act therefore gave Catholics *the right to become members of parliament*. It admitted them also to all offices except three:—those of Regent, Lord lieutenant, and Lord chancellor. But later on, the lord chancellorship was opened to them.

PART VI.
THE MODERN PERIOD.
(SUPPLEMENTAL: 1829—1922.)

CHAPTER I.

TO THE DEATH OF O'CONNELL.

277. *The Tithe War*.—The Catholic people were still called on to pay *tithes* for the support of the Protestant clergy, and also “*church rate*” or “*church cess*” to keep the Protestant churches in repair. This caused great disturbance; for immediately after Emancipation the people rose 1830 everywhere against both imposts; and there were continual conflicts between the peasantry and the police, with much loss of life. This is usually known as the “*Tithe War*.” Some years later the government attempted to settle the matter by putting the tithes on the landlord instead of the tenant; but the tenants had still to pay, for the landlords gradually added the tithes to the rent.

278. In 1831, the *National System of Education* was established, which, for the first time in government elementary schools, gave Catholics opportunities to receive instruction in their own religion. This system has been very successful.

279. In 1838, the *Total Abstinence Society* was formed by a young Roman Catholic priest, the Rev. Theobald Mathew. He preached Temperance with extraordinary success, so that in a short time drunkenness almost disappeared from Ireland.

280. In 1840, O'Connell and other leaders commenced an agitation for a repeal of the Act of Union; and in 1843, he began to hold great public meetings for this purpose, at which vast numbers of people attended. In this year he was arrested, tried, and imprisoned; but was released after a few months by the House of Lords, who found that the trial was not a fair one.

281. *The Famine*.—In 1845 and 1846 the potato crop failed, and there was a great famine, so that in 1846 and 1847, the people died by tens of thousands, of starvation and fever. Noble efforts were made by thousands of Englishmen individually to save the famishing peasantry; but the Government took no sufficient measures; and fully one-

fourth of the people of Ireland died of famine and disease during these two years.

282. *The Young Ireland Party.*—O'Connell's agitation was always peaceful and constitutional—*i.e.*, he took care never to break the law. But after his trial and conviction, a number of the younger men among his followers, losing faith in his peaceful method, separated from him and formed what is called the "Young Ireland Party." They were educated men of the highest character, and many of them very clever writers. O'Connell's various organisations had been almost exclusively Catholic; but the Young Ireland party included Catholics and Protestants. Their most distinguished men were Charles Gavan Duffy, John Blake Dillon, and Thomas Davis, who gave expression to their views in "The Nation" newspaper. It was very ably conducted; but the writers were much less guarded than O'Connell, and they soon came in conflict with the law. About the same time John Mitchel, an Ulster Unitarian, founded another paper, in which he wrote a number of well written and violent articles, openly advocating rebellion, and total separation from England.

During all this time of disruption and

trouble, the whole of the Catholic clergy and the great body of the people, forming collectively the "Old Ireland Party," stood by O'Connell; and the Irish Catholic ecclesiastical authorities, all through, were opposed to any attempts at rebellion or revolution. Yet in many ways this brilliant band of young men exercised great influence for good, which remained after the trouble and the trials were all past and gone, and which remains to this day. They infused new life and energy into Irish national literature, spread among the people a knowledge of Irish history, Irish music, and Irish lore of all kinds, and taught them to admire what was good and noble among past generations of Irishmen of every creed and party.

283. *The Death of O'Connell.*—In 1846, O'Connell, worn out by labour and anxiety, began to decline in health: and he suffered intense anguish of mind at witnessing the calamities of the people he loved so well; for the famine was at this time making fearful havoc among them. In the following year his physicians advised him to go to the Continent. He set out on a journey to Rome, partly devotional and partly for health; but his strength failed on the way;

and he died at Genoa on the 15th May, 1847, at the age of seventy-one. In accordance with his latest wish, his heart was carried to Rome, and his body was brought back to Ireland and buried in Glasnevin, where a stately pillar tower, after the model of the round towers of old, now marks his resting-place.

CHAPTER II.

DISTURBANCES AND REMEDIES

284. The Young Ireland party now determined to attempt revolution. But the government, knowing all their plans and intentions, began to take measures. Mitchel was arrested and sentenced to transportation. William Smith O'Brien, Thomas Francis Meagher, and John Blake Dillon went down to the country and tried to raise
1848 an armed rebellion: but the people did not join them, and after a trifling skirmish at Ballingarry in Tipperary, the rising was easily put down. The leaders—including Smith O'Brien, Meagher, and several others—were soon arrested, tried,

and sentenced to death. But the sentence was commuted to transportation for life, and they were all sent to Van Diemen's Land; from which many of them afterwards escaped. These events, it may be said, brought to an end the Young Ireland movement.

285. The famine had ruined the majority of the Irish landlords as well as of the people, and most of the estates were heavily in debt. In 1849 the government formed a court in Dublin to sell encumbered estates. The purchasers bought the estates as they stood, and no allowance was made for the tenants' improvements, so that most of them lost the savings effected by the labour of their lives. In 1860 the government made an attempt to remedy this, but it came to nothing. The new owners generally raised the rents, and there were evictions, resistance and outrages: while the people continued to emigrate by tens of thousands.

286. About 1862 James Stephens founded what was called the "Society of the Fenian Brotherhood," with the object of bringing about the independence of Ireland by force of arms. It was a secret oath-bound society: but the government were made aware of all the proceedings by spies. In 1865 Stephens

and several others were arrested; but after a few days Stephens escaped from prison by the help of the warders, who were themselves Fenians unknown to the authorities. All the others were sentenced to penal servitude.

In 1867 another rising was attempted: but it was easily suppressed. The Fenians formed a plan to seize Chester Castle containing a great store of arms: but it was never carried out, as the authorities discovered the plot in time.

In the same year (1867) two Fenian prisoners were rescued from a prison van in Manchester: the police officer in charge was unintentionally shot dead, after which three of the rescuing party were tried and hanged. Towards the end of the year an attempt was made to blow up Clerkenwell prison in order to release a Fenian prisoner, which caused the death of several persons and grievous injury to many others.

287. Partly on account of these events, the minds of Englishmen began to be turned to the need of some reform and improvement in the condition of things in Ireland; and Mr. Gladstone, the prime minister at the time, directed his attention to the disestablishment of the Irish Protestant church which had been the established church since the

time of Elizabeth (119). It was shown in parliament that it had not been able to carry out the intention for which it was originally established, the conversion of the Irish Catholics, who, instead of diminishing, had been relatively increasing. After much determined opposition the Protestant Church of Ireland was disestablished, so 1869 that it was no longer in connexion with the government; but due precaution was taken that none of the Protestant clergy then living should suffer any loss.

288. In 1870 Mr. Gladstone made another attempt to secure that the Irish tenantry should be compensated for their improvements in their farms in case of eviction; but the working of the act was obstructed in various ways, and it did little good.

289. In 1878 the *Intermediate Education Act* was passed, providing for Intermediate Education in Ireland by payments to schools and by prizes to successful students. The funds were supplied from the money left after the disestablishment of the Church: and the system has been highly successful.

CHAPTER III.

THE PARK MURDERS.

290. The condition of the Irish tenantry continued to be very bad: and about 1879 a "Land League" was formed by Michael Davitt, to agitate for reform and improvement. This League subsequently exercised great influence in the country and in parliament. In 1880 Charles Stewart Parnell was elected head of the Irish Party, and turned out the greatest Irish popular leader of modern times after O'Connell. By him the members of the Party were held together in a manner never equalled, so that they acted and voted as one man.

The land agitation became daily more intense and violent, and boycotting was very generally brought into play against those who resisted or opposed the movement. An attempt was made to put down the whole agitation by a coercion act passed at the instance of Mr. Forster, chief secretary for Ireland, giving the authorities power to arrest and keep in prison, without trial, all persons "reasonably suspected" of breaking

the law. During the passing of this bill, Parnell and another Irish member, Joseph Biggar, obstructed and delayed the proceedings in every possible way, by taking advantage of the rules of the house of commons, but not breaking them.

1881 In spite of all they could do, however, the bill was passed.

291. By far the most important act to reform the Irish land laws was passed by the Gladstone government in 1881. By this law a Land Court was formed for fixing fair rents—"judicial rents" as they were called; and it was also laid down that so long as a tenant paid his rent he could not be evicted. This act acknowledged the tenant as joint owner with the landlord. While it was passing through the Commons Mr. T. M. Healy, M.P., induced the government to insert a clause of great importance, exempting the tenants' improvements from rent: a provision which is now known as the "Healy clause." In the cases brought before this court the rent was reduced on an average by 20 or 30 per cent. The rent once fixed by the court was to remain so for fifteen years, when it would be again revised. Although the justice of the decisions of this court were often questioned,

by both tenants and landlords, it continued to do much good for the country.

292. Meantime great numbers of "suspects" were in jail all through Ireland under Mr. Forster's Act. At last matters came to a climax when Mr. Parnell and several other leaders were arrested and put into Kilmainham jail (1881). While here, Parnell and the others issued the "No Rent Manifesto"—advising the tenants all through Ireland to pay no more rent. It was, however, condemned everywhere by the clergy; and the people took little notice of it, but continued to pay their rents as before. After this the government suppressed the Land League by proclamation.

293. After Parnell's imprisonment the state of the country became worse than ever, and outrages increased everywhere. The government at last became convinced that his arrest, and Mr. Forster's Act that led to it, were a mistake. They released all the suspects and dropped the Act. It was now determined to adopt a conciliatory policy, and the government appointed Lord Frederick Cavendish chief secretary in place of Mr. Forster, who had resigned. The people of the whole country were in high hopes of

better times, but these hopes were all dashed by a terrible crime. On the 6th of 1882 May Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Thomas Burke, Under-secretary, were murdered in open day in the Phoenix Park by some members of a gang calling themselves "Invincibles," whose chief means of carrying out their plans was assassination. The news of this crime was received with horror all through Ireland as well as in England. This was followed by a severe coercion act, and all conciliatory measures were ended. In a little time the murderers were all brought to justice; five of them were hanged, and others of the Invincibles were sent to penal servitude.

In the autumn of 1882 Mr. Parnell founded the "Irish National League," to help in advancing the cause of Home Rule, and to advocate further reform in the Irish land laws. In 1883, 1884, and 1885 there were a number of dynamite outrages in London which had been plotted in America; but after a time the outrages ceased, and the Coercion Act was allowed to drop out of use.

294. An act was introduced and passed at the instance of Lord Ashbourne, then
(D778)

K

lord chancellor of Ireland, setting apart £5,000,000 to lend to the tenants of small holdings to enable them to buy out their farms when they could come to an agreement with their landlords, and thus become their own landlords. The tenants were to pay back the loan by annual instalments. After purchase, too, the amount the tenant had to pay yearly was less than the rent he had to give the landlord. A few years afterwards another act of the same kind, with the same amount of money, was passed.

These two acts—so far as the money could go—did great good; a large number of tenants took advantage of them: and they were remarkably punctual in paying back their instalments. After a certain number of years, when the purchase money had all been paid back, the land would be quite free, with nothing to pay except rates and taxes. When a man owns his farm for ever he has every inducement to improve it by draining, fencing, subsoiling, and so forth: and as a matter of fact nearly all those who have purchased their land work with great heart and spirit, and are every year becoming more comfortable and independent.

CHAPTER IV.

AGITATION AND UNREST—THE PLAN OF
CAMPAIGN.

295. A dozen years before this time the Home Rule movement was set on foot by Isaac Butt (in 1874) to agitate for an Irish Parliament in Dublin: but he and his party were outvoted in the house of commons, and the movement came to nothing. Mr. Gladstone now became convinced that it was necessary to give Ireland Home Rule; and for that purpose he introduced a 1886 bill which was received with great favour by the Irish Nationalist party. But a considerable number of the Liberal members of parliament—hitherto Mr. Gladstone's followers—were opposed to the bill. They did not want to give a parliament to Ireland, and they severed themselves from Mr. Gladstone's policy, forming a separate party who were known as "Liberal Unionists," meaning that they still remained Liberals, but insisted on a single united parliament for England and Ireland. When the question came on in the house of commons these voted with the

Conservatives against the Home Rule Bill, the Government were defeated, and the bill was thrown out. The rejection of the Home Rule Bill caused intense disappointment to the great majority of the Irish people, and gave great satisfaction to the Irish Conservative minority.

296. The land troubles continued, and evictions went on increasing, till at last the tenants adopted what was called the "Plan of Campaign." This meant that on any estate where the landlord insisted on what were considered impossible rents, the tenants in a body agreed to retain all the rents in their hands till some settlement was arrived at. Many landlords were forced to give reductions: but as time went on the Plan was often greatly abused, by being brought to bear on landlords that deserved well of their tenants, who now found it impossible to obtain their rents, and were, in many cases, reduced to poverty. Sometimes also dishonest persons pretending to act in accordance with the Plan, refused to pay ordinary debts, such as those incurred for goods got on credit. Boycotting also was often practised against individuals; and what with all these causes of disquietude the country became very much disturbed.

297. A Crimes Act for Ireland was passed, giving the authorities greater power to arrest and prosecute persons for 1887 various specified offences. There were frequent collisions between the police and people; and in a scuffle at Mitchelstown, Co. Cork, the police fired a volley by which two persons were killed and several wounded. A proclamation was issued suppressing the National League (293) in a large part of the south and west of Ireland. The state of disquietude continued: meetings were proclaimed, but were held in spite of the proclamations; the police and people often came into collision. Several of the leaders were imprisoned, among them Mr. William O'Brien, and Mr. T. D. Sullivan, then Lord Mayor of Dublin.

But with all this weary state of unrest there are a few pleasanter features to be recorded. Considerable numbers of small farmers continued to buy out their farms under the Ashbourne Acts (294); and hundreds of tenants applied to the land court to have judicial rents fixed (291), so that the Land Commissioners had much more business on hand than they could get through.

CHAPTER V.

THE DEATH OF PARNELL.

298. The London "Times" now brought a terrible charge against Mr. Parnell. It accused him of having written 1888 letters encouraging persons to commit crimes and outrages, and of saying that Mr. Burke, who was murdered in the Park, got only what he deserved. The writer went on to state that the letters, in Parnell's handwriting, were in the "Times" office. Parnell at once declared these accusations false, and brought an action for slander against the "Times." After a long trial it was found that all the letters had been carefully forged, in imitation of Parnell's handwriting, by an Irish newspaper editor named Pigott, who sold them for a good sum to the editor of the "Times." Pigott fled, but was pursued: and when he found himself overtaken, committed suicide. The "Times" had to acknowledge the forgery, and by agreement of both sides, handed Parnell £5000 as damages, besides paying all the enormous expenses.

299. The Plan of Campaign still went on, though it—as well as boycotting—had been condemned by a rescript from Rome, and by the Catholic ecclesiastical authorities in Ireland. While many landlords were forced by it to reduce their rents, a large proportion of them resisted it with great determination; and large numbers of the tenants who held back their rents were evicted from their farms. These farms were, in many instances, given by the landlords to others—often persons brought from a distance. But the position of these new settlers was generally a very unpleasant one: for they were absolutely boycotted by the people of the neighbourhood, so that they often found it hard to obtain the necessaries of life; and in many cases they had to be protected by the police. Towards the close of the year, however, the country became more tranquil; the Plan of Campaign failed on many estates, and there was much less boycotting.

300. At this time a circumstance occurred that led to the disruption of the Nationalist party. For a considerable period, very unfavourable rumours affecting Mr. Parnell's personal character had been going about; but he persisted in declaring them false, and that

when the proper time came he would prove them so. But when the proper time did come, it was found that they were all true. On this, the Irish Catholic bishops and the majority of his followers, declared 1890 that they would no longer have him as leader: but a section of the Nationalists took his part, and determined that they would still follow him. So the Nationalist party became broken up into two sections, Parnellites and anti-Parnellites, who were bitterly opposed to each other. The hierarchy and Catholic clergy, in general, were all through, to the very end of this dispute, on the side of the Anti-Parnellite party; and later on the bishops issued a manifesto declaring Parnell unworthy to be leader, and appealing to the people to sever themselves from him.

301. One of the most extensive and influential landlords in the south of Ireland was Mr. Smith Barry; and, so far, he and his tenants had agreed very well. But it happened that he gave aid to a neighbouring landlord who was trying to resist the Plan of Campaign; and for doing this, Smith Barry's tenants—urged on by some of the Nationalist leaders—quarrelled with him, though having little or no fault to find with

his manner of dealing with themselves. Then commenced a bitter struggle. The tenants resorted to the Plan of Campaign on his estates, and he evicted them wholesale for non-payment of rent. He was the owner of a great part of the town of Tipperary—a town then very prosperous, and having a large number of well-to-do shopkeepers, his tenants. Following the advice of one or more of the leaders, they now resolved to abandon their dwellings and shops wholesale, so as to cut off the supply of rent from the landlord. They built up a temporary town in the neighbourhood, which they called "New Tipperary," to which most of them removed; while others who thought the matter unadvisable and foolish, and who did not wish to remove, were forced to do so. But after a considerable interval the shopkeepers, getting tired of their new abodes, and finding themselves not prospering, settled matters with their landlord, who treated them very well on the occasion; they went back to their old homes; and so this business came to an end.

302. During 1890, and far into 1891, Parnell went through the country holding meetings of his followers and making speeches; and there were many violent scenes,

quarrels, and collisions, between the two parties. At last he became ill: yet with extraordinary energy he still persisted in attending and speaking at meetings in all sorts of weather, when he ought to have been in his bed. But human nature could not stand this strain; and at last he broke down utterly, and died on the 6th of 1891 October. His death, instead of ending the dissension, as many thought it would, only made matters worse: and though the majority of the anti-Parnellites were anxious for reconciliation, the Parnellites bitterly rejected all advances. The leader of the Parnellites was Mr. John Redmond, M.P., while Mr. Justin M'Carthy, M.P., was at the head of the anti-Parnellites, and after his resignation, Mr. John Dillon, M.P. Some years later on, both parties were united under the leadership of Mr. John Redmond, M.P.: a union brought about mainly by Mr. T. Harrington, M.P., one of the Parnellite members.

303. Another Home Rule bill for Ireland was brought forward by Mr. Gladstone; while Mr. John Morley was chief 1893 secretary for Ireland. It was passed in the commons, though not with a very large majority—43 in a house of

651; but the house of lords rejected it, 419 of them voting against it, and only 41 in favour of it. The news was received this time in Ireland with little surprise or excitement; for everyone foresaw that the lords would throw it out, as the majority in the commons was so small.

CHAPTER VI.

INDUSTRIAL PROGRESS

304. About this time the farmers all through the country, under the encouragement and guidance of Mr. Horace Plunkett, began to form themselves into "*Co-operative Societies*," for the improvement of home industries, and especially of agriculture; one general association, founded by Mr. Plunkett, being at the head of all—the "Irish Agricultural Organisation Society." These associations have effected great good by spreading enlightenment and introducing improved methods. Among other benefits many "Credit Banks" have been established, in which farmers and others can borrow small sums of money at a reasonable

rate of interest, instead of having recourse to private money-lenders, who generally charged enormous and ruinous rates for their loans.

305. Another good result of this co-operative movement is the spread of "Creameries," which began to be formed in many districts about this time. Hitherto each farmer who kept cows had his butter made in his own home. But in most cases there were bad appliances, and many of the women were more or less unskilled in making butter; so that it was not as good as it might be, and brought low prices. Instead of following this plan, the farmers of a district combined together to form a company, each paying for a number of shares according to his means: or a company for the purpose was formed in some other way. They had a Creamery erected, where butter is made on a large scale by special machinery, and under the management of skilful persons. To this all the farmers around send their milk, for which they are paid a good price, and after the butter is made they get back the buttermilk, which they use chiefly in feeding calves. In the Creamery, the very best butter is made from the milk; the manager sells it at a high price; and the proceeds are divided

among the members of the company according to the number of their several shares, giving a good profit. By these Creameries, moreover, the credit of Irish butter is kept up—a very important matter. The farmers find this plan of disposing of their milk and butter far more profitable than making the butter in their own homes: and accordingly creameries are spreading more and more over the whole country.

306. In various parts of Ireland, especially in the west, certain districts had become greatly overcrowded or “congested”—i.e., the people were clustered closely in particular spots, living in poor cabins, each family with a little bit of land quite insufficient for support. They paid the rents as best they could, partly by industries outside their farms, such as fishing, gathering sea-weed, etc.; and in a great many cases the able-bodied men went to England every autumn, where they got work and returned home with their earnings after the harvest. In all cases, the people of these congested districts were miserably poor and lived in a very wretched, comfortless way, hardly able to support life.

To help to remedy this state of things, the *Congested Districts Board* was established at the instance of the chief secretary, Mr.

Arthur Balfour. The Board were empowered to adopt various means to carry out their good work, for which they were furnished with funds by the government, the money being advanced as a loan at a small rate of interest. In great numbers of cases the board purchased farms sufficiently large for the support of the several families, to which the cottiers removed, and for which they were to pay reasonable rents.

The board also encouraged local industries among the people, such as fishing, rearing poultry, pig-feeding, and the production of bacon for home use and for exportation, cattle breeding, and such like; and it made money grants to schools for Technical Instruction in certain industries suitable to the districts. Most of their enterprises, or those undertaken under their auspices, were attended with very satisfactory results, such for instance as the Woollen Industry established by the nuns at Foxford in the county Mayo. This gave employment to the cottagers, both young and old, in all that neighbourhood, so that the whole district has been altered; instead of half-idle, listless poverty, there is now to be seen everywhere cheerful work, life, and prosperity. Under this board also, and aided by the

generosity of the Baroness Burdett-Coutts, a fishery school was established at Baltimore, county Cork, by the parish priest—the Rev. Father Davis—which did and continues to do, immense good. A year or so later on, the board purchased the whole of Clare Island, outside Clew Bay in Mayo, which they divided among a number of people, each family having a good-sized comfortable farm at a moderate rent. These are only a few examples of the great good done by this board. The beneficial work which it initiated is still being carried on.

307. The "Light Railways Bill," which was passed at the instance of Mr. Balfour, in 1895, for constructing narrow-gauge and moderately cheap railways through remote districts, besides giving employment during construction, did much service by opening up those places, so that the farmers were now able to send their produce to markets, a thing they could not do before for want of means of conveyance.

308. A great advance has been gradually making in recent times to improve the condition of the labouring class. Formerly nearly all the labourers in country places lived in wretched cabins, which were often dirty, comfortless, and unhealthy, and

hardly afforded shelter. In most cases too they paid as much rent as if the houses were good. Now the custom has grown up, under the provisions of the law, for the county authorities to erect "Labourers' Cottages"—neat comfortable little houses, built of brick and stone, with slated or tiled roofs, and having a sufficient number of apartments. Attached to each cottage is a small plot of land for a kitchen-garden. These cottages and garden plots are given to the labourers of the place at very low rents, barely sufficient to pay off in time the expense of erecting the buildings. So while the counties are at no loss, the labourers are great gainers; for they have clean, pretty cottages and good gardens, generally at lower rents than they had to pay for their poor cabins. In some parts of the country "Labourers' Cottages" are to be seen everywhere, and the old cabins have almost completely disappeared.

309. On one question which came under public notice about this time, all parties in the country were united in opinion, a very rare circumstance in Ireland. For some time past, a Commission appointed by the Government had been inquiring whether Ireland's contribution of taxes to the support of the

empire was the proper amount: for many persons in Ireland had long maintained that the country paid too much. The Commission was composed of a number of Englishmen and Irishmen, specially selected on account of their skill in matters of that kind. After a long and most careful investigation, they issued their Report; and their verdict was that Ireland paid nearly £3,000,000

1896 every year more than was just or right in proportion to her means.

On this "Financial Relations Question," as it is called, meetings began to be held all over the country, which were attended by the most influential men of all parties and religions alike—men of the most extreme and opposite opinions joining in friendly union on the same platform, and making vigorous speeches, calling on the imperial parliament to relieve Ireland from this excessive taxation. In spite of the interest excited both in Ireland and Great Britain by the Commission's Report, no effort was made by the government to remedy the injustice.

310. Another land bill was passed this year (1896), by which many changes and improvements were made in former acts, and which made it easier for tenants to purchase out their farms. One general effect of all the land

acts was that, except where tenants had bought out their farms, the land belonged partly to the landlord and partly to the tenant, as already remarked (291). For the landlord had a right to rent, while on the other hand, the tenant generally owned whatever improvements he had made, and could not be disturbed so long as he paid his rent. This was what was called *Dual Ownership*; and it was on all hands considered an undesirable arrangement. Among other evils, it gave rise to many disputes and law suits between landlord and tenant. The government tried to put an end to this state of things, by encouraging the tenants to buy out their holdings if they could come to an agreement with the landlord as to terms. Many did so, as we have already seen; and year by year the numbers of "Peasant Proprietors," as they were called, increased. But many leading men, especially Mr. T. W. Russell, M.P., considered the process too slow, and were in favour of "Compulsory Purchase"—i.e., that the landlords should be forced by law to sell, or the tenants to buy, in all cases at a fair valuation; while others again disliked compulsion, and preferred to let the voluntary system of purchase take its course.

311. There had been two Universities in Ireland for a considerable time past—namely, the Dublin University—or Trinity College, as it is commonly called—and the Royal University (which latter was established in place of the older Queen's University); but in neither of them was any provision for religious instruction for Catholic students; so that the Catholics had long demanded a University at which they could conscientiously attend. About twenty years before the time we have now arrived at, Mr. Gladstone attempted to remedy this grievance by bringing in a bill to have one University for all Ireland, which should include Trinity College, the three Queen's Colleges (of the Queen's University) and a New College, to be founded, in which there would be full opportunity for Catholic religious teaching; but the attempt failed, for the bill was thrown out by parliament. This question continued to be agitated and discussed very earnestly, and most of the leading statesmen of both England and Ireland were in favour of establishing such a University—notably Mr. Arthur Balfour and Mr. John Morley; but for long no practical steps were taken in the matter.

312. The most important event for Ireland towards the close of the century 1898 was the passing of the Irish *Local Government Act*, which made a complete change in the home administration of the country. By this Act nearly all local affairs, such as the fixing, collecting, and expenditure of rates, poor law management, roads, bridges, labourers' cottages, sanitation, schools for Technical Education, and such matters, instead of being in the hands of persons directly appointed by government, are now managed by several kinds of Councils, whose members are elected by the free votes of the people. The act came into operation in 1899.

313. The Government also established a Department of Agriculture and Technical Instruction, with Mr. Horace Plunkett—as he then was—as vice-president and chief manager. One of its functions is to provide for what is badly wanted, “Technical Education” for the instruction and improvement of workers in the various trades and industries, especially Agriculture. It also applies itself to the establishment of new industries, and to the revival of others that are either decaying or have died out altogether. From the outset this Board did a great deal of

good, and there is every prospect that it will effect much more. It ought to be remarked here that the Commissioners of National Education in Ireland greatly helped the cause of Technical and Industrial Education by issuing a new Programme encouraging managers and teachers of National Schools to teach the pupils various simple handicrafts suitable for children, so far as it could be done without interfering with the necessary literary education.

314. In the last year of the century Queen Victoria visited Ireland, where she received a cordial welcome. The Conservatives had now come into power in England, under the leadership first of Lord Salisbury and afterwards of Mr. Arthur Balfour. Adverse as this party was to any measure of legislative independence for Ireland, it was at the same time prepared to do what it could to remove the causes of Irish discontent in regard to other matters.

315. *Wyndham's Land Act*.—We have seen the attempts made to settle the Irish Land Question down to 1896 (pp. 139, 141, 143, 145, 157, 160, 161). But by far the most important of all the Irish Land Acts

was passed in 1903, at the instance
1903 of Mr. Wyndham, Chief Secretary,
aided all through by skilled advice.

Down to this year the great majority of the farms still remained unpurchased, for there was generally a gap between what the tenant was willing to give and what the landlord was willing to sell for. By this Act a free grant (or "Bonus," as it is usually called) of twelve millions was given by government to enable the two parties to come to an agreement, so that when the tenant offered so much for his farm, a sum was added to it—a part of the twelve millions—that brought it high enough for the landlord to accept. A vast sum was also set apart for *lending* to tenants, to enable them to buy, which they were to pay back in instalments, as in the Ashbourne Acts (p. 146). This Act worked very successfully. Great numbers of tenants bought out their farms, so that it seemed likely that in a few years most of the land of the country would belong to "Peasant Proprietors." Provision was also made to enable the landlords to keep their own homes and demesnes, and live in Ireland—a thing much to be desired.

316. From this brief narrative of events up to the year 1905 it will

be seen that much has been done to remedy the evil effects of the unjust and ruinous laws described at pages 103 to 116. But much remains to be done both by the Government and by the people themselves. On the part of the people, what they need most of all is to avoid intemperance, and to help the cause of Temperance by every means in their power. Another most necessary thing is that those of all parties and religions, throughout the four provinces should unite for the common good, and should pay more attention to the encouragement and development of industries, so as to give increased opportunities of employment to the working classes, and induce them to remain at home. This desirable state of things is slowly but surely coming about; matters are gradually improving year by year; and those who have the welfare of the country at heart entertain strong hopes that the time is not far off when the people of Ireland will at last be prosperous and contented.

CHAPTER VII.*

SINN FEIN—THE GREAT WAR—THE
REBELLION—1905—1922.

317. Early in 1905 Mr. Wyndham resigned the office of Chief Secretary. He was succeeded by Mr. Walter Long, a man who had little sympathy with anything in the way of Irish Reform, and was therefore welcomed by those who were opposed to Home Rule.

In 1906 a General Election took place, at which the Unionist Party, which 1906 had held office for twenty years, was defeated by an overwhelming majority. But this defeat did not advance the cause of Home Rule, because the Liberals were now so strong that they were independent of the Irish Party.

In January, 1907, Mr. Augustine Birrell, up to then best known as a clever 1907 writer, was appointed Chief Secretary, and in the ensuing session of Parliament introduced his *Irish Councils Bill*—a measure which was intended to transfer the governing powers of Dublin Castle to a partly elective council. But as this council

* Chapter VII has been written by W. St. John Joyce, eldest son of the late Dr. P. W. Joyce.

was not to be given any power of law-making, the proposal was not a popular one. A Convention held in May to consider the Bill rejected it by a large majority, and it was accordingly dropped.

The difficult question of higher education was dealt with in 1908 by the *Irish Universities Act*, which abolished the Royal University and established two new institutions—namely, the National University, with colleges in Dublin, Cork, and Galway, and the Belfast University.

318. A new party, *Sinn Fein*, was now beginning to make its influence felt in Irish politics. Originally literary and industrial, the movement gradually assumed a political aspect, advocating the withdrawal of the Irish members from the House of Commons, as well as the establishment of a voluntary council in Ireland to regulate the affairs of the nation.

In May, 1910, King Edward died,
1910 and was succeeded by his son under
the title of George V.

The census of 1911 showed a population
of 4,384,951, being a decrease of
1911 1.7 per cent. on the population
shown by the previous census of
the year 1901.

This year was passed the Parliament Act, which provided that a Bill passed by the Commons at three sessions, though rejected by the Lords, could be presented for the Royal Assent.

In 1912 a new Home Rule Bill was introduced, and passed its readings in the Commons. To resist its operation, a *Volunteer Army* was raised in north-east Ulster, and a Provisional Government was organized to take over the administration of the Unionist counties.

In March, 1914, troops were ordered to move from the Curragh into north-east Ulster to suppress the Provisional Government. The officers were, however, given the option of resigning their commissions, which fifty-eight of them did, in preference to bearing arms against the Northern movement. The expedition against the Provisional Government was then abandoned. The Unionists continued their preparations for war, and a cargo of 35,000 rifles and quantities of ammunition were landed at Larne. This was, of course, quite illegal, but no arrests were made, and no action was taken by the Government.

The Nationalists now decided to follow the militant example set by the Unionists,

and started a Volunteer organization of their own, for the purpose of supporting the Home Rule Act when in operation. A division, however, occurred, which resulted in two organizations—the *National Volunteers* and *Irish Volunteers*, the latter becoming subsequently known as the Sinn Fein Volunteers.

319. In May, 1914, the Home Rule Bill passed its final reading in the House of Commons. In June an "Amending Bill" was placed before the Upper House, but the Peers altered it, and passed it in a form which involved the permanent exclusion of the whole of Ulster.

About this time an attempt made by the National Volunteers to land a consignment of rifles near Dublin led to a conflict between the people and the forces of the Crown. Three civilians were killed, and many injured, including soldiers and police.

320. In June, 1914, the heir to the Austrian throne, the Archduke Franz Ferdinand, and his wife were assassinated at Serajevo in Bosnia. Austria maintained that the crime had been prompted by Servia, and declared war against her. This led to the greatest conflict in the history of the world. The central European Powers—Germany and

Austro-Hungary—with Turkey and Bulgaria were opposed by England, France, Russia, Belgium, Japan, and subsequently Italy and the United States of America. The total numbers engaged in this world-wide war must have approached forty millions.

The Germans overran Belgium, invaded France, and advanced to the River Marne. They were at the very outskirts of Paris when the Allies made a stand, and after a desperate struggle at the Battle of the Marne the first German Army under General von Kluck was forced to a precipitate retreat, and the French capital was saved.

On receiving the Royal Assent, the Home Rule Bill passed automatically into law, but Mr. Asquith, the Premier, announced that its operation would be suspended until after the war, and that an Amending Bill would be passed before it became actually operative.

In May, 1915, the Government was re-constructed on a “Coalition” basis, and Sir Edward Carson was admitted into the Ministry.

The Sinn Fein Volunteers had, since the outbreak of the war, greatly increased in numbers and influence. To some extent they

coalesced with the Citizen Army, a labour body, led by James Connolly.

321. On Easter Monday, 24th April, an insurrectionary rising by the Sinn 1916 Fein Volunteers commenced in Dublin. The General Post Office and many other public buildings were seized by the insurgents, who issued a proclamation establishing the Irish Republic. On the 27th April martial law was proclaimed throughout Ireland, and General Maxwell, who had been appointed Military Governor of Ireland, arrived from England with a large force of troops. A cordon was drawn round the centre of Dublin, and street fighting continued in the city until the 30th, when some 700 of the insurgents surrendered, and on the following day the Republican commanders capitulated. Destructive fires took place in various parts of the city in consequence of the military operations, and on the 29th April a dreadful conflagration occurred, which involved nearly the whole of Lower O'Connell Street, with portions of the adjoining thoroughfares. The damage amounted to over three millions. The casualties among the military and police were some 124 killed and 397 wounded, while among the civilians 180 were killed

and 614 wounded. On 3rd May Mr. Birrell's resignation as Chief Secretary was announced, followed in a few days by that of Lord Wimborne, Lord Lieutenant, and Sir Matthew Nathan, Assistant Under Secretary. On the 12th May Mr. Asquith arrived in Dublin to confer with the military authorities, and was sworn in as Irish Privy Councillor. Fifteen of the insurgents were executed, others sentenced to periods of imprisonment, and several hundred sent to Great Britain and interned.

On August 11th the Rt. Hon. Henry Edward Duke was sworn in as Chief Secretary; and on the 24th, Lord Wimborne as Lord Lieutenant, on his re-appointment.

In December, 1916, Mr. Lloyd George succeeded Mr. Asquith as Prime Minister, and proposed the calling together of a *Convention of Irishmen* of all parties to solve the Irish question.

The *Convention* was to consist of 101 members, representing County Councils, Trades, Churches, and political organizations, Sinn Fein refused to send delegates.

In July, 1917, the Irish Convention began its sittings, with Sir Horace Plunkett as Chairman. The Chief Secretary declared in Parliament

that if a substantial agreement should be arrived at by the Convention, the Government would, without delay, introduce legislation to give effect to the proposals.

In April, 1918, the Convention ended its sittings, but no substantial agreement was reached, and five separate reports were presented by the various sections.

On May 11th Field-Marshal Viscount French was sworn in as Lord Lieutenant, and the Rt. Hon. Edward Shortt, as Chief Secretary.

322. About the time that the Convention concluded, an Act was passed extending *compulsory military service* to Ireland, hitherto excluded. This threw the whole country into an intense state of agitation and excitement. Sinn Fein, Nationalist, and Labour organizations united, and a conference was held at the Mansion House, Dublin, when a determined resistance was resolved upon. The Catholic Hierarchy met at Maynooth, and declared the Conscription decree "an oppressive and unjust law, which the Irish people have a right to resist by all means consonant with the law of God."

The Viceroy thereupon issued a Proclamation inviting voluntary recruiting through-

out Ireland, and stating that, if before the 1st October 50,000 men were raised by this means, and an average of 10,000 a month continued after that date, the Conscription Act would not be enforced. The question of Conscription was, however, much to the relief of the Government, disposed of by the termination of the war.

323. Early in 1918 the Central Powers made their last effort on the Western Front, which was followed by a great 1918 counter-offensive on the part of the Allies, and by the middle of August the tide had turned. The Allied forces broke through the famous Hindenburg Line, supposed to be impregnable, and simultaneously continuing their pressure on other fronts, soon forced Bulgaria, Turkey, and Austro-Hungary to surrender, leaving Germany to carry on the war alone.

In October Germany requested President Wilson to take steps to bring about an Armistice, which was proclaimed on November 11th, 1918, and the terms of peace were subsequently drawn up by the representatives of the Allied powers at the Congress of Versailles.

In December there was a General Election. The Sinn Fein or Republican party returned

73 members, and, by agreement, the Constitutional Nationalists 7. The Irish Unionists were represented by 25 members. This was the first election at which women, enfranchised some months previously, recorded their votes. The Sinn Fein members announced their intention of not attending the Parliament at Westminster.

On 20th January, 1919, the Rt. 1919 Hon. Ian MacPherson was sworn in as Chief Secretary.

On the 22nd the *Dáil Eireann*, or constituent assembly, composed of the 29 Sinn Fein Members of Parliament who were at liberty, met at the Mansion House, Dublin. A Declaration of Independence was issued, delegates to the Peace Conference were appointed, and messages sent to the free nations of the world calling for a recognition of Irish nationality. Sinn Fein commenced a militant policy, and conflicts between the Irish Republican Army and the forces of the Crown became of frequent occurrence.

Early in 1920 was commenced the imposition of the "Curfew" regulations, whereby persons were obliged to be indoors within certain specified hours, which were varied from time to time.

324. On 29th March Sir Nevil Macready (D778)

M

was appointed Commander of the Forces, and soon afterwards was initiated the policy of Reprisals, which has given rise to so much discussion and controversy both at home and abroad.

On 1st April Sir Hamar Greenwood, a Canadian, was appointed Chief Secretary. The country continued in a very disturbed condition; and in December the Military Authorities took possession of the Dublin City Hall and Municipal offices. The Government of Ireland Bill received Royal Assent on December 23rd, and towards the close of the month a great incendiary fire destroyed a large portion of the centre of Cork city. With a view to tracing the perpetrators, the Government ordered General Strickland to hold an investigation, but the result of his inquiries was not made public.

325. The dawning of 1921 seemed to bode little hope for the distracted country. The competition in bloodshed and violence between the opposing forces continued, and resolved itself into a guerilla warfare.

On the 9th of April His Grace Dr. Walsh, Archbishop of Dublin, died, and with his death the Catholic Church in Ireland lost one of its most widely renowned members

On 25th May the Republicans burnt the Dublin Custom House, probably the finest public building in Ireland.

The Proclamation calling on the Southern Parliament to assemble was ignored by Sinn Fein, and a deadlock resulted.

On June 22nd the Parliament of North-East Ireland was opened in Belfast. King George expressed a fervent hope on that occasion that his coming to Ireland that day might prove to be the first step towards an end of strife amongst her people, whatever their race or creed.

On June 24th the British Premier, Mr. Lloyd George, invited Mr. De Valera and Sir James Craig to attend a conference in London "to explore to the utmost the possibility of a settlement."

On July 8th a truce in hostilities in Ireland was arranged to operate as from the 11th. On the 12th July Mr. De Valera sent a reply to Mr. Lloyd George, in which he said: "I am ready to meet and discuss with you on what basis such a conference as that proposed can reasonably hope to achieve the object desired."

On September 30th, after a prolonged discussion between Mr. De Valera and Mr. Lloyd George, a conference was fixed for

Tuesday, 11th October, in London. The following is the invitation sent by Mr. Lloyd George:—

“ We send you herewith a fresh invitation to a conference in London on October 11th, where we can meet your delegates as spokesmen of the people whom you represent, with a view to ascertaining how the association of Ireland with the community of nations known as the British Empire may best be reconciled with Irish national aspirations.”

To this Mr. De Valera replied :—

“ We have received your letter of invitation to a conference in London on October 11, ‘ with a view to ascertaining how the association of Ireland with the community of nations known as the British Empire may best be reconciled with Irish national aspirations.’

“ Our respective positions have been stated, and are understood, and we agree that ‘ conference, not correspondence,’ is the most practical and hopeful way to an understanding. We accept the invitation, and our delegates will

meet you in London on the date mentioned to 'explore every possibility of settlement by personal discussion.' "

The Irish delegates were:—Mr. Arthur Griffith, Minister for Foreign Affairs; Mr. M. Collins, Minister of Finance; Mr. R. Barton, Minister for Economic Affairs; Mr. E. J. Duggan, Mr. Gavan Duffy.

The British delegates were:—Mr. Lloyd George, Mr. A. Chamberlain, Lord Birkenhead, Mr. W. Churchill, Sir W. Evans, Sir H. Greenwood, Sir G. Hewart.

After many meetings and much discussion a Treaty was signed on December 6th by the Irish and British delegates. Article 1 of the Treaty provides:—

"Ireland shall have the same constitutional status in the community of nations known as the British Empire as the Dominion of Canada, the Commonwealth of Australia, the Dominion of New Zealand, and the Union of South Africa, with a Parliament having powers to make laws for the peace, order, and good government of Ireland, and an Executive responsible to that Parliament, and shall be styled and known as the Irish Free State."

Certain harbour and other facilities were to be afforded by the Irish Free State to the Imperial forces.

The terms of the Treaty embraced the whole of Ireland, but if they so desired, the Parliament of North-East Ireland might, within a month after the passing of an Act by the British Parliament ratifying the Treaty, separate themselves from the Irish Free State; in which case, a Commission would be appointed to adjust the boundaries between the Free State and North-East Ireland, according to the wishes of the inhabitants.

On December 15th a momentous session of Dáil Eireann opened. The question of the Treaty was exhaustively discussed, and on January 7th the Treaty was ratified, the voting being 64 for, 57 against.

On January 14th the Treaty was ratified by a meeting of the members elected 1922 to sit in the House of Commons of Southern Ireland; and a Provisional Government was established for the administration of the country during the interval between the date of the Treaty and the constitution of a Parliament and Government of the Irish Free State.

Government departments and buildings, including Dublin Castle, military barracks, etc., were handed over to the Provisional Government, and British troops evacuated the Irish Free State.

